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Because of the shortage of professional personnel in the correctional system and because the university is a center for ideas and source of manpower, there is a great need for the university to develop a multidisciplinary curriculum directed toward training professionals to work in the field of corrections. A collaborative relationship between correctional agencies and universities could be furthered if: university faculty recognized the educational and research needs of the correctional system; students engaged in work projects in correctional settings; and correctional personnel were involved in educational and research ventures. Because of its traditional isolation, academic specialization, and dislike of vocationalism, universities have resisted collaborative efforts but the pressure of the public and students for more public service activities could help promote involvement in the correctional field. Although it is not ideal, the organization of schools of social work can provide a basis for developing an appropriate curriculum. Various colleges and universities have initiated work-study programs of potential significance for university-agency collaboration. Special training methods designed for personnel working in anti-poverty programs or with juvenile delinquents also merit special attention. Strategic considerations will determine what model of educational program is adopted. All of the many feasible models incorporate the concept of combining outside work with study. This report is available from the Joint Commission on Correctional Manpower and Training, 1522 K Street, NW, Washington DC 20005. (JS)

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THE UNIVERSITY AND CORRECTIONS:

POTENTIAL FOR COLLABORATIVE RELATIONSHIPS

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION & WELFARE
OFFICE OF EDUCATION

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THE UNIVERSITY AND CORRECTIONS

POTENTIAL FOR COLLABORATIVE RELATIONSHIPS

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A consultant's paper prepared for the
Joint Commission on Correctional Manpower and Training
1522 K Street N.W. Washington, D. C. 20005
January 1969

FOREWORD

This is the second of three consultant's papers prepared for the Joint Commission by experts outside its staff. The first in the series was written by Judge Ted Rubin and Referee Jack Smith of the Denver Juvenile Court and was entitled *The Future of the Juvenile Court: Implications for Correctional Manpower and Training.* The present paper will be followed by an analysis of legal changes and their implications for corrections, by Professor Fred Cohen of the University of Texas Law School.

All three of these papers have been commissioned for the purpose of exploring issues and trends in areas which are viewed by the Joint Commission as significant for those working in or with correctional agencies. All three represent the positions of the consultants and are not necessarily those of the Joint Commission. They are being distributed to share with interested persons the perceptions of experts in these areas and to elicit feedback which may be useful to the Joint Commission in the formulation of its final recommendations.

In the paper here presented, Kenneth Polk, associate professor of sociology at the University of Oregon, has prepared what we feel is a provocative exploration of the areas wherein collaborative relationships between higher education and corrections can be established and maintained. In this day of ever-increasing technology and the "knowledge explosion," it is essential that more satisfactory means of working together be developed.

The Joint Commission acknowledges with thanks permission granted by various publishers to quote at some length from the following books and journals: Doubleday and Company, *The Berkeley Student Revolt,* edited by Seymour Lipset and Sheldon S. Wolin; Grove Press, Inc., *Berkeley: The New Student Revolt,* by Hal Draper; Harper and Row, *The College and the Community,* by Baker Brownell; Harrison-Blaine of New Jersey, Inc., "A New Breed of B.A.'s," by Christopher Jencks, *The New Republic,* Oct. 23, 1965; Harvard University Press, *Higher Education in Twentieth-Century America,* by William Clyde DeVane, and *The Uses of the University,* by Clark Kerr; Mediaeval Academy of America, *Scholarly Privileges in the Middle Ages,* by Pearl Kibre.

The preface of this paper has been prepared by Dr. Delyte Morris, president of Southern Illinois University. Dr. Morris also represents the National Association of State Universities and Land-Grant Colleges in the membership of the Joint Commission. The manuscript was edited by Roma K. McNickle. Other staff members who worked with the author in the preparation of the paper were Rudy Sanfilippo and Jo Wallach.

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and Training

PREFACE

The Joint Commission on Correctional Manpower and Training has in the past two and a half years undertaken a very difficult task. Not only has it endeavored to stimulate personnel recruitment for a field in which professionalism only now is emerging, but it has sought public support to influence a field which is not readily apparent to public view.

The correctional field does not have the advocacy of clients' families in many walks of life as, for example, do campaigns for mental health. The Joint Commission is positively seeking to suggest better ways to recruit, educate, and professionalize a field of work which handles "enemies of society" and has been historically concealed from the public.

But times and attitudes change. A more enlightened public now seeks reintegration of offenders into society and seems willing to pay properly for qualified professionals to guide its correctional programs. The new climate makes possible the consideration of the role of universities in such an effort.

Dr. Kenneth Polk sets forth here the salient issues that the university and the field of corrections face in developing curricular paths for an emerging profession. The involvement of the university in training, research, and innovative demonstration on behalf of the needs of the correctional system appears to be crucial. Equally important is the university's task of reshaping curriculum to meet the needs. The tradition of service and public responsibility of state-supported universities sets the stage for ready acceptance of this responsibility.

Curricular models are reviewed and recapitulated in the following paper. A final preference is not made and does not seem possible at this time. Indeed, a general model for university training at any level may not be desirable. However, the need of an emerging profession for a multi-disciplinary curriculum generic to the criminal justice function is well documented by the author.

The problems analyzed in this paper must also be viewed against the backdrop of the total demand for large numbers of professionally trained workers to provide a vast array of human services. While the universities must consider their roles in the larger perspective of present and future public needs, it appears to be certain that the involvement of the university for an education adequate to the task of corrections is vital to success.

DELYTE W. MORRIS

Carbondale, Illinois
January 14, 1969

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Part I: Some General Considerations

Chapter 1. INTRODUCTION

Controversy is part of the tradition of higher education in the United States. Angry comment on the shortcomings of the university is hardly new. In fact, some observations many decades old have a surprisingly contemporary ring.

As long ago as 1923, Flexner was saying:

> The problem of obtaining quality in a larger portion of our collegiate output has been rendered the more urgent by the unprecedented quantitative expansion in the field of secondary and collegiate education during the last twenty years. Students have multiplied enormously in numbers. Buildings have increased in size and elaborateness, and funds previously undreamed of have been procured for endowment and upkeep. By no human possibility could there have been a simultaneous and equal development on the qualitative side, for teachers could not have been trained in advance, and aims and ideals have to be worked out of the existing social situation. The mere fact that college education is, therefore, except for earnest and industrious students who shift for themselves, so often superficial and aimless, leaving huge numbers of college graduates untrained, immature, and — in a serious sense — uneducated, is not under the circumstances itself so disquieting. Disquiet arises rather from disinclination to face, avow, and experiment with the facts.[1]

In the same year, Upton Sinclair was asking the American people:

> What is the so-called "higher education" of these United States? You have taken it, for the most part, on faith. It is something which has come to be; it is big and impressive, and you are impressed. Every year you pay a hundred million dollars of public funds to help maintain it, and half that amount in tuition fees for your sons and daughters. You take it for granted that this money is honestly and wisely used; that the students are getting the best, the "highest" education the money can buy.
>
> Suppose I were to tell you that this education machine has been stolen? That a bandit crew have got hold of it and have set it to work, not for your benefit, nor the benefit of your sons and daughters, but for ends very far from these? That our six hundred thousand young people are being taught, deliberately and of set purpose, not wisdom but folly, not justice but greed, not freedom but slavery, not love but hate?[2]

Today, these words of Sinclair and of Flexner carry a new sense of urgency. Folly, greed, and hate are tearing universities apart. In 1968, even more than in 1923, it is imperative that our universities become more willing to "face, avow, and experiment with the facts."

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[1] Abraham Flexner, *A Modern College and a Modern School* (Garden City, N. Y.: Doubleday Page, 1923), pp. 52-53.

[2] Upton Sinclair, *The Goose-Step: A Study of American Education* (Pasadena, Calif.: The Author, 1923), p. ix.

The field of corrections faces a different, but equally fundamental, challenge. In part, the challenge comes from some well-documented gaps. Given accepted standards of service, for example, it has been established that at the present time there is a great shortage of professionally trained personnel.[3] It is expected that this shortage will become increasingly critical over the next few years. Furthermore, the methods of corrections are under attack. The most recent Uniform Crime Reports contains a detailed investigation of criminal careers, in which the high level of recidivism has given the Federal Bureau of Investigation powerful evidence which can be used to raise serious questions about the effectiveness of rehabilitation.[4]

The university must loom large in any scheme to deal with these challenges to corrections. Shortages of personnel raise obvious questions about the past education and training efforts of higher education. The university will be a potential source of support and innovation as the cry for "law and order" places increased pressure on corrections. Both as a center for experimentation and as a source of manpower and ideas for service and experimentation, the university must play the role of ally as corrections comes to grips with these challenges.

From the university's point of view, these crises in corrections come at a time when higher education is seeking for definitions of new and better ways of serving its own functions. It must be recognized at the outset that to deal with the topic of higher education is to enter a well-patrolled logical thicket, one that has attracted some of the most vigorous and able minds of the nation. Furthermore, to call for more effective links between the correctional system and higher education is to argue for a brand of vocationalism that is at odds with many of the more outspoken critics of American higher education.

Granted that one must avoid the ever-present dangers of "overspecialization" and "vocationalism," it seems plausible that training programs which combine university and correctional experiences might add to the educational growth of students beyond what is available to them on the campus. Undergraduate students who have had experience with the clientele of correctional agencies are in an advantageous position when it comes to making sense out of their course work in criminology, delinquency, deviance, maladjustment, or psychopathology. Their experience within the organizational structure gives them a base of experience for courses dealing with organizational structure, the sociology of work, or industrial sociology.

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[3] President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice, *Task Force Report: Corrections* (Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1967), pp. 95-99.

[4] Federal Bureau of Investigation, *Crime in the United States: Uniform Crime Reports — 1967* (Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1968), pp. 34-44.

The principle of involvement in the outside world has been recognized for many years as a fundamental aspect of graduate professional training, as illustrated in the period of internship in education and medicine and the field work program in social work. The instances where such involvement is a basic part of undergraduate education, some of which are reviewed in later sections, suggest that much is to be gained by the student through this process.

A fundamental issue raised by procedures which push the university into the external world has to do with the definition of appropriate "teaching" and "learning" processes within the university. Generally, universities have adopted a conservative position as to what education is all about. The basic methods of university education, such as seminars and lectures, are adaptations of British and German university traditions. While the knowledge revolution has affected dramatically *what* is taught, it has had little impact on *how* things are taught in universities. Even when new technological features are brought into the teaching process, they are most often adapted to old teaching techniques. When closed-circuit television is employed, for example, it is apt to be most frequently used to disseminate lectures to a wider audience, although both in the agencies and on the peripheries of universities television is being used in more innovative ways such as monitoring the actual performance of individuals "on site."

The training units of social service agencies and private industry have developed elaborate and successful techniques, which range from dealing with the most concrete, perhaps even trivial, situations to the most abstract. This has developed to such an extent that it is fair to say that the university is very far from "cornering" the knowledge market. The universities, in other words, could profit by learning about learning if more effective collaborative ventures are developed.

The current separation of university and correctional agencies does have one casualty: knowledge. University scholars are often prone to complain that correctional institutions are indifferent, if not hostile, to their attempts to gain access for research purposes. Correctional administrators, just as frequently, are heard to complain of the difficulty in obtaining any useful collaboration or consultation from university personnel. While much of this problem certainly has its roots in different goals and intellectual orientations, some part of it might be alleviated by providing systematic contact between universities and agencies based on training programs. Thus knowledge about corrections might be increased by: (a) university people who are brought into the correctional environment, increasing, for example, the probability of both educational and research involvement; (b) students who add to the general knowledge their experiences in the correctional setting; and (c) involvement of correctional personnel in educational and research ventures which heretofore have been defined as outside their normal work roles.

Chapter 2. PROBLEMS IN COLLABORATION

However logical and sensible the joining of university and correctional resources might seem, several things make the task a difficult one. In the history of both universities and correctional agencies we find a set of factors at work which serve to create barriers to protect them from outside interference.

Resistance of the University

As a much older institution than corrections, the university has had a longer time in which to build resistance to collaborative efforts. Some elements in this resistance are noted below.

Traditional Insulation from the Outside World

The university and its surrounding world resemble a pair of constantly quarreling lovers who cannot live apart yet cannot live together in peace. The university receives from the world the financial and manpower resources needed to perform its tasks and yields up in return an educated elite to govern and direct society, as well as much of the knowledge needed to accomplish such diverse tasks as planting grapes, fishing the seas, and sending rockets to the moon.

Despite this intense state of interdependence, perhaps even because of it, there has been a long history of conflict between the university and its surrounding world. The trauma that occurs when "outside" pressures mount, as in the McCarthy era in the United States in the early 1950's, has resulted both in a mistrust of "outside" influences and in the creation of a number of bureaucratic devices which make it most difficult for "outsiders" to have an impact on the internal affairs of the university. Any attempt to bring about collaboration between correctional institutions and universities is bound to encounter: (1) generalized intellectual mistrust directed at outside influences, and (2) a specific set of organizational mechanisms (such as curriculum committees which take years to make any decision, let alone a favorable one) which make change difficult. Indeed, the meetings of such bodies as university faculties or academic senates make it seem that they are created in such a way so as to assure that no concrete decision will ever be reached.

The Strangling Curriculum

The contemporary university curriculum has undergone many basic changes in its evolution. A cynic might feel, with some justification, that the evolutionary process has produced mostly vestige. Yet there has definitely been some modification of the medieval *septivium* or seven liberal arts. Over time, the initial vocationalism of the university (training in law, medicine, theology) gave way to the rise of the "liberal arts" tradition. In turn, the liberal arts tradition was challenged in the latter part of the nineteenth century in the United States with the importation of the ideas and methods of German universities which merged with the emphasis on the practical orientation that produced the Land Grant College Act of 1862.

Despite all the changes, it is still questionable whether the present curriculum meshes with the needs of the contemporary society. As a student noted once in a meeting in the West:

> Well, you must remember that I was taught in a liberal arts college under religious sponsorship. I studied epistemology, the medieval church, ethics, the teaching of St. Thomas Aquinas, to name a few. I can only say that my education prepared me well for any problem I might have encountered in the thirteenth century.

What has been carried into the present time is a rather medieval concept of the Educated Man and, at best, a nineteenth century definition of the process appropriate to producing such a man. We have maintained in our universities the bachelor's, master's, and doctor's degrees and certainly can observe the clear remnants of the *septivium* in the present curriculum.

The process of education at the university level does not start with an explicit conception of the educational and training requirements of the outside world, then work its way backward into the educational world, defining educational processes by virtue of their "fit" to such outside requirements. Instead, the educational institutions attempt to maintain a timeless concept of an Educated Man and specifically reject the notion that education — especially, but not only, university education — should fit, say, public service or occupational requirements of modern society. The curriculum of the universities reflects such views, and any attempt to alter the curriculum must contend with this process of defining what is "appropriate" university education.

Antivocationalism among Academics

A closely related resistance factor flows out of the antivocational tradition of university academics. Few have been as effective in criticizing vocationally relevant education as Robert M. Hutchins, who believes that vocationalism deprives the university of its only excuse for existence, which is "to provide a haven where search for truth may go on unhampered by utility or pressure for results." [1] He complains that:

> Our erroneous notion of progress has thrown the classics and the liberal arts out of the curriculum, overemphasized the empirical sciences, and made education the servant of any contemporary movements in society.[2]

In sum, Hutchins is convinced that a vocational orientation will destroy the university.

> If you set out to prepare a boy for a trade there are and can be no limits to the triviality to which you will descend except those imposed by the limitations on the time at your disposal. You can justify almost anything on the ground that it may be helpful to the young man in his profession. And if you take the view that

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[1] Robert Maynard Hutchins, *The Higher Learning in America,* (rev. ed., New Haven: Yale University Press, 1952), p. 43.

[2] *Ibid.,* p. 65.

> a university may properly prepare boys for trades, there is no limit to the number of trades you can train them for except those imposed by the limitations on your resources. Since you can usually make a school pay if you make it vocational enough, there are really no limits at all. Any occupation that wishes to be dignified will say that it is a profession and suggest that the university cooperate by offering a curriculum preparing young people for it. This is a free country, which in my business means that anybody is free to make suggestions to a university and demand that they be carried out.[3]

The conflict on the issue of vocationalism runs deep in the history and traditions of American higher education. As long as fifty years ago Thorstein Veblen was complaining that:

> In this latter day academic enterprise, that looks so shrewdly to practical expediency, "vocational training" has, quite as a matter of course, become a conspicuous feature. "Vocational training" is training for proficiency in some gainful occupation, and it has no connection with the higher learning, beyond that juxtaposition given it by inclusion of vocational schools in the same corporation with the university.[4]

The intellectual vigor and skill of such thinkers is formidable. When one realizes that this kind of thought is most sympathetically received by those in bureaucratic control of the university, he begins to understand the slow progress made in bringing occupationally relevant innovations into the structure of the American universities.

Backward-Directed Innovation

Anyone who wishes to work with universities in developing educational programs must be on guard for one fundamental and virtually reflexive response by higher education. Ask university professors to develop an "innovative" model of education, and there is a fair probability they will build you an Oxford. To be precise, what many will do is to reach backward in time and attempt to resurrect the "true" principles of university education, including the emphasis on "general" education (rather than specialist training), perhaps building a curriculum around metaphysics or recreating the small college atmosphere.[5]

Academic Specialization and Departmental Structure

An additional problem to be faced in the development of correctional programs arises because of the poor "fit" of the field into the departmental organization of the contemporary university. As a bureaucracy, the structure of the university is relatively frozen into an organization of semi-autonomous departments. As a consequence, budget decisions, personnel matters, and much of the routine administration take place within specialized departments. This kind of organization mitigates against collaborative training ventures involving corrections in a number of ways.

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[3] *Ibid.*, pp. 39-40.

[4] Thorstein Veblen, *The Higher Learning in America, A Memorandum on the Conduct of Universities by Business Men* (rev. ed., New York: Augustus M. Kelley, 1965), p. 191.

[5] See the descriptions of such "new" college experiences as the University of South Florida, Monteith College of Wayne State University, or the new college of Hofstra in Lewis B. Mayhew, "The New Colleges" in Samuel Baskin, ed., *Higher Education: Some Newer Developments* (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1965), pp. 1-26. An additional factor often involved is the reduction of course offerings, consistent with the ideal of a liberal arts core; see Earl J. McGrath and L. Richard Meeth, "Organizing for Teaching and Learning" in the same volume.

1. Since corrections is a generic area of interest, involving many disciplines, it becomes defined as outside the realm of any one department, so that individuals may find it difficult to involve either the department, or themselves, in the task of assuming responsibility for training programs.

2. Since corrections is, in addition to being multidisciplinary, an "outside" influence representing the "applied" or "practical" world, any one department may feel that its reputation will become tainted by too close an involvement with corrections.

3. Since educational resources are scarce, the departments will give priority to those activities closest to the specialty interests, excluding from priority such programs as training for the field of corrections.

Dedication of the Scholar to a Specialized Quest for Knowledge

A closely related impediment to collaborative training is that it demands a commitment to the very thing that few university scholars care much about, i.e., teaching. The scholar of today is likely to be heavily oriented to his discipline and to see his role as defined basically by how much he is able to contribute, through research and publication, to that discipline. This has enormous effects on the nature of the teaching role generally, as DeVane has observed.

> If the distinguished scientist or scholar can find time at all from his life of research to teach undergraduates he is likely to consider them as future scholars in his own field. If he is teaching freshmen, the course will probably be taught as if it were the first course on the long journey towards the doctor's degree in that discipline. The young teacher just out of graduate school, still hypnotized by the intense specialization demanded by that experience, is likely to be even narrower and more professional than his master. As Robert Hutchins wryly commented, "It is hardly an exaggeration to say that university departments exist to train people to teach in university departments."[6]

The problem posed by correctional programs is that they do not fit easily into the pattern of commitments of the scholar. He may not see correctional training as a fitting field for his talents as a researcher, and what little time he has for teaching will be given to graduate instruction. What is left over might be devoted to the teaching of undergraduates. Given the low priority of teaching generally, in other words, and given the priorities for investment of time utilized for teaching, correctional training programs will find it difficult to obtain commitments from the present-day university professor.

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[6] William Clyde DeVane, *Higher Education in Twentieth Century America* (Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1965), pp. 148-149.

Academic Prestige and Reward Structure

It follows from the above points that a general problem in obtaining university cooperation in correctional training is that it deals with something relatively unimportant in academic reward structures: education. Academics like to talk about education, but their actual performance is another matter altogether. A low level of concern for teaching is in no small way affected by the fact that few rewards are given for teaching excellence. As one university administrator put the matter to the author, "Teaching is like breathing. You are not rewarded for breathing." Thus, academics today have come to look elsewhere – to research, to publication, to consultation – both for financial and prestige rewards. Correctional training thus comes to suffer from a double problem: it is concerned with an *undesirable subject matter* given the organization of the university in subject-matter departments, and it is an *undesirable activity* (education), since the rewards and prestige of academia flow to essentially noneducational activities.

Focus on the Academic Elite

Universities have long accustomed themselves to their role of training elites. While certainly in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries this meant the economic and political elites, the emergence of the concept of intellectual elite in the twentieth century has not altered the vocabulary of elitism so central to university philosophy. The university assumes that the universe can be divided into the "able" and "unable." Its mission, of course, is to train the able. Simultaneously, the university must protect itself from the unable, and the lowering of "standards" that would occur if the unable were admitted. The danger here to correctional training programs is that most of both clients and staff lie in the unsafe range.

Universities appear to be possessed by what we might call naive contagion theories of stupidity. First, there is assumed a psychologically naive unidimensional definition of intellectual "ability." Second, the contagion theory assumes further that "bright" people are placed in great peril if they come into contact with "dull" people, as if somehow "dullness" were contagious. The result is that in theory and practice the university has created innumerable barriers to insulate itself from the "dull" elements of society.

To the extent that large percentages of the personnel to be trained in correctional programs are by definition in the "dull" group, collaborative training efforts will feel the full force of these barriers.

Resistance of the Agencies

Up to this point we have dealt with problems of collaboration which arise from the orientation of the universities. But it is obvious that correctional agencies, as well, have their own problematic characteristics.

Differential Conception of Training and Education

Among the many things that hinder university-agency cooperation is the fundamental difference in the meaning each gives to the term "training." Agencies typically are concerned with training as the teaching of specific techniques within a concrete setting, in contrast with the general education typical of the university. This may lead the agency to undervalue the importance of training in the general skills often deemed as prerequisite to professional qualification. In turn, this may restrict the scope of training programs undertaken and so may have adverse effects both for the agency and for the individual trainees. The different definition of the educational "product" is what is at issue here.

The Problem of Language

Related to the conception problem is the problem of organizational language. Agency personnel are likely to find the theoretical vocabulary of the university strange and inappropriate. The vocabulary of the agency, as it evolves out of the specific and concrete experiences of the agency, may be quite divergent from the abstract language of the university and may create a condition of mutual incomprehensibility.

Insulation of Social Agencies

Like universities, correctional agencies are characterized by their insulation. In part, the isolation of agencies is a product of the laws which create them to perform distinctive tasks with unique jurisdiction. Furthermore, correctional agencies have evolved elaborate mechanisms to protect them from "interference" from outside persons. However valuable these mechanisms might be in protecting the stability of the organization, they are often the same mechanisms that render difficult the task of bringing about any meaningful change among agency personnel through a training program. University trainers may not only be seen as "not understanding the real problems" of the agencies; the changes they desire may be viewed as downright dangerous.

Lack of Accountability and "Program Mystique"

Social agencies, including correctional agencies, are not held accountable by hard criteria of success. Correctional institutions, for example, are not judged by their ability to prevent further recidivism, which means that the component programs are unable to examine in an empirically meaningful way the success, or failure, of their programs. Lacking these hard factual indicators, a "program mystique" develops whereby the involvement of the professionals in the program, combined with their good intentions, generates a presumption of the success of the program (a presumption which often runs counter to facts in those rare occasions where empirical criteria of success are applied).

Program mystique interferes with training in a number of ways. Most fundamentally, the assumption of success, while more comfortable than looking at "the facts," robs any training program of a hard, empirical criterion of improved correctional service which must be the ultimate justification for any training program. Secondly, when an agency

shies away from the hard facts of success, it is by direct implication difficult to draw upon data to expose the gaps of knowledge and technique which need to be filled by a training program of one sort or another.

Chapter 3. IMPETUS FOR CHANGE

The everyday frustrations of trying to bring change to the university often generate a feeling of hopelessness. The university is so vast and complex, its organizational structure so overwhelming, that any innovation seems impossible.

Yet dramatic changes have taken place in higher education. One need not be a student of history to realize that the Berkeley of today is very different from the Oxford or Paris of the fourteenth century. Consider, for example, Kerr's description of the far-flung activities of the University of California.

> The University of California last year had operating expenditures from all sources of nearly half a billion dollars, with almost another 100 million for construction, a total employment of over 40,000 people, more than IBM and in a far greater variety of endeavours; operations in over a hundred locations, counting campuses, experiment stations, agricultural and urban extension centers, and projects abroad involving more than fifty countries; nearly 10,000 courses in its catalogues; some form of contact with nearly every person in its region. Vast amounts of expensive equipment were serviced and maintained. Over 4,000 babies were born in its hospitals. It is the world's largest purveyor of white mice. It will soon have also 100,000 students — 30,000 of them at the graduate level; yet much less than one third of its expenditures are directly related to teaching. It already has nearly 200,000 students in extension courses — including one out of every three lawyers and one out of every six doctors in the state.[1]

A number of factors have brought about this rather dramatic alteration in the organization of higher education in the United States. Anyone who intends to bring about a further movement of the university into the "outside" world is well advised to study: (a) the factors which have served to move the university from the cloister to a central position in contemporary life; and (b) the set of pressures which work to "pull" the university in a conservative direction, i.e., back to the cloister. Higher education, in other words, is not a simple, relatively stable system but one constantly buffeted and pulled simultaneously in many directions. Side by side on the campus today one finds a bizarre set of new programs. Some, like those which involve the university in research and training for national defense and poverty programs, place it in the very center of national events. Others, like the honors college, attempt to re-create an earlier day in the university.

Pressures for Relevancy

Both long-term and recent developments are today exerting pressure on the university to be relevant to the society of which it is a part.

Changes in American Society

The university in America has changed because America itself has undergone dramatic transformation. For well over a century after its founding, the nation remained fundamentally agrarian. It is now highly urbanized and technologically oriented. Where 3 percent of the population lived in cities at the close of the eighteenth century, 60 percent now do so.

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[1] Clark Kerr, *The Uses of the University* (Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1963), pp. 7-8.

This change has, of course, been accompanied by shifts in the labor force. One obvious trend has been the decline in the need for farm workers. In the past fifty years, the proportion of farm workers in the work force has dropped from over 30 to less than 6 percent, and it continues to drop. This has been accompanied by a reduction of the blue-collar occupations, and a concomitant expansion in the white-collar sector. In 1910 only about one in five was a white-collar worker, while today white-collar workers outnumber blue-collar workers. This trend is accelerating, with the greatest expansion occurring in the professional, clerical, and sales ranks. There has been created a particular need for professional and subprofessional workers in the public sector of the economy, especially in the human service areas such as health, education, recreation, and welfare. Concerning this trend, Pearl has observed:

> Today, there are no more people working for private employers than there were five years ago, but there are far more persons working for public employers now than there were five years ago. Most of these increases in employment have taken place in health, education, and welfare fields. These fields are going to increase more in the next ten years. We can reach this conclusion simply by looking at the population projections. For instance, by 1975 there are going to be about one and a half times the number of people of school age than was the case in 1960. Obviously then, we are going to need many more teachers. By 1970 there are going to be one third more people over the age of 65 than there were in 1960. These people have severe health needs *now*. We are going to have an even greater need for persons to work in health services in the future. Similar conditions will prevail in welfare, recreation, and conservation.[2]

These occupational changes have created a new set of educational requirements for the society. At a purely quantitative level, one result has been that more youth are enrolled in school for longer periods of time. For example, the proportion of children aged 14 to 17 who are enrolled in school has risen from 11.4 percent in 1900 to 92.8 in 1965.

Higher education has been heavily affected. The percentage of college-age young people 18 to 21 years of age who go to college has risen from 4 in 1900 to 38 in 1964. A particularly significant trend is taking place at the graduate level, the growth in graduate level education being four times larger than the growth in undergraduate education. Looking at the actual output, the number of bachelor's degrees has increased from 27,410 in 1900 to 394,889 in 1960; master's degrees (or the equivalent) from 1,583 to 74,497; and doctor's degrees (or the equivalent) from 382 to 9,829.

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[2] Arthur Pearl, "New Careers as a Solution to Poverty" in *Poverty: Four Approaches, Four Solutions* (Eugene, Ore.: Associated Students of the University of Oregon, 1966), p. 14.

What has happened in America, then, is that, as the nation has come under the influence of modernization and technology, it has looked to and expanded its educational institutions, especially higher education, in order to keep pace. There has emerged, thus, an ethic of vocational legitimacy that influences (but has come nowhere near to capturing) higher education. Unlike European universities, where expansion has been much slower, American universities have moved not simply to increase the quantity of students enrolled but the quality of higher education as well. American higher education has been relatively quick to develop occupationally specific professional schools (such as in social work, education, or recreation, to give examples in the human services) and to place these schools not only inside the university but within the academic degree structure as well.

In Great Britain, by way of contrast, special teacher training institutions, with prestige well below that of the universities, have evolved which give as the professional credential a certificate but not a degree. Some British teachers do go to the university first to obtain a degree, which they follow with the brief training required to obtain the teaching credential.

Within the American higher education system, then, we have elaborated the idea that occupational training may have a place within the university. In fact, once given a place, it has been afforded a position which makes it compatible with more academically oriented programs. This trend has not been without its critics, of course, for some see vocationalism as the basic enemy of a "real" university education. Even its critics will grant, however, that American higher education is distinctive in its openness to the influences of vocationalism. Some critics argue that, instead of being a virtue, this above all else is destroying the universities of the nation.

The Tradition of Public Service In American Universities

One significant source of pressure for the type of collaborative efforts to be proposed here derives from the ideal of public service which has developed in the American university. While this emphasis on service is a distinctively American attribute, its roots can be found both in the historical development of higher education in this country and in the ideas it has borrowed from other countries. The original colleges established in the United States reflected the English origins of the colonists in the goals, procedures, and methods of higher education. Stress was placed on textbook recitation with a fixed curriculum that could be traced directly to the medieval idea of the "seven liberal arts" or *septivium,* made up of the *trivium* (grammar, dialectic, and rhetoric) and the *quadrivium* (geometry, arithmetic, astronomy, and music).[3] However altered it has become, this tradition persists in the "liberal arts" focus of most contemporary university undergraduate programs.

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[3] Music was omitted at institutions such as Harvard.

Pressures for change in the orientation of universities began to mount with the development of science during the Enlightenment. It is important to note that many of the major discoveries in science in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries took place outside the universities. With the coming of the nineteenth century, however, the situation changed. The German universities early in the century underwent a transformation in which an emphasis on research in the physical sciences began to over-shadow the traditional interest in speculative philosophy. With the accompanying development of specialty departments and an ethic of student freedom, the German university became similar to the present-day American graduate or professional school, and the earlier conception of "college" (as maintained in England) virtually disappeared.

The interest of American intellectuals in the emergence of science led them to shift their allegiance from the British to the new German universities, and this, in turn, influenced the development of American universities. Much in the contemporary university can be traced to the German influence, such as the development of departmental specializations and the use of lecture and demonstration techniques in the classroom. The idea of the elective system is consistent with the principle of student self-reliance and the individual responsibility for learning contained in the German expression *Lernfreiheit.*

The development of scientific knowledge, especially applicable knowledge, coupled with the emergent needs of American society, was an important ingredient in the creation of the orientation toward service of the universities in the United States. Rudolph has commented on how the dramatic changes of the nineteenth century created new learning needs.

> By the 1850's the industrial potential of the United States was as apparent as its agrarian past, and there emerged a growing awareness that a new age required new training and new preparation. What were lacking, however, were any certain institutional foundations upon which to erect programs of agricultural and mechanical training as well as any deeply held respect for expertness. The ordinary farmer and the ordinary mechanic neither sensed the changing nature of their world nor felt any need for training beyond the job itself, but there did exist among local and regional agricultural societies and among educational reformers a belief that changing times required a new look at the competence of the American farmer and the American mechanic.[4]

A major step in the direction of a service orientation was taken with the passage of the Land Grant College Act of 1862. This legislation was explicitly concerned with the "liberal and practical education of the industrial classes in the several pursuits and professions in life." The intent of the Act was to help support at least one college in each state "where the leading object shall be, without excluding other scientific or classical studies and including military tactics, to teach such branches of learning as are related to agriculture and the mechanic arts."

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[4] Frederick Rudolph, *The American College and University: A History* (New York: Knopf, 1962), p. 248.

It is understandable that this formulation was most warmly received in public and western universities. One place where it took root most vigorously was at the University of Wisconsin in the first years of the twentieth century. The "Wisconsin Idea," as Butts has remarked,

> . . . led the way for the country in realizing how socially useful the university could be. The university professors engaged actively in aiding farmers to solve their pressing agricultural problems; university economists aided in devising tax structures and in solving urgent labor and industrial problems; and university political scientists gave direct aid to the state legislature in effecting needed political reforms which helped to make of Wisconsin one of the leading political and social laboratories for the nation. Direct service to the commonwealth became the watchword for a university that would become the watchtower for the state.[5]

The president of the University of Wisconsin during these formative years, Charles R. Van Hise, gave a statement of the ideal of service in the public university which, although written over fifty years ago, has some strikingly contemporary implications.

> These new conditions of the new century confront our nation with a new crisis. We must pass from the period of individualism which was the characteristic of the nineteenth century, to the period of social responsibility which will be characteristic of the twentieth century. This will be as great a readjustment of ideals as has ever been demanded by seer or prophet of any people at any time. This is the reason why the wise, constructive leadership of men of thought is so necessary at this time. Therefore the universities, while confessedly the very centers of unrest, the sources of disturbance, contain the possible leaders who may point the way to the inevitable readjustment without disaster.[6]

Another spokesman for this point of view was the former president of the University of Minnesota who, in 1932, said of the state universities that there was "no intellectual service too undignified for them to perform." [7] Coffman's commitment to education and service was well thought out.

> In other words, the great responsibility resting on our institutions of higher education is that of assisting the American people to understand the shifting currents of the times and to organize an educational program which will best serve humanity, both young and old, in the light of these changes. The gravest responsibility of higher education is not that of determining how much a building costs, how many years of training a teacher needs, or how rapidly the children should

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[5] R. Freeman Butts, *The College Charts Its Course: Historical Conceptions and Current Proposals* (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1939), p. 339.

[6] "An Address by Charles R. Van Hise" in Merle Curti and Vernon Carstensen, eds., *The University of Wisconsin: A History* (Madison: University of Wisconsin Press, 1949) II, pp. 622-23.

[7] Lotus D. Coffman, *The State University, Its Work and Problems* (Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1934), p. 205.

> progress; it is understanding life, and in the light of that understanding, organizing a curriculum which will orient the students into that life and train them to be citizens as well as workers in a republic.[8]

Brownell has stated his concern with the isolation of American colleges, what he terms the "principle of the social vacuum."

> The college is set up on the assumption that the student should be abstracted from his home and work community, placed in a special environment called the campus, and segregated so far as the process of education is concerned from normal relationships within his community. His community, both past and future, his occupational milieu, and his mature patterns of political and social behavior are largly ignored. In the irresponsible freedom and emptiness of a vacuum he is taught the easy doctrines of a philosophy that has no continuing contact with the operationally real. He becomes cosmopolitan, for this is inherent in educational abstractionism, and he leaves his living, concrete community, if he has one, never to return.[9]

It is his feeling that we pay an expensive price for this isolation.

> The university has lost its moral confidence because it has lost contact with the communities of men in which moral behavior is initiated and confirmed. It neither knows these primary groups or serves them. Its educational effect in general is to help drain youth and wealth and opportunity away from them. This leads to disaster to the university and to our way of life.[10]

One thing that Brownell has made explicit is that there are pedagogical grounds for the service orientation of the university, *i.e.,* as the university involves itself in the world, the quality of education is improved.

> College education . . . should take place within the occupational context of the student. This does not mean that it should be a trade school; on the other hand, it should not be removed from the normal productive life and its ideology. The conventional cleavage between culture and work; between the humanities and technology, between the practical and ideal, has no rightful place in enlightened education. How to work out this living unity in terms of educational procedures is a problem that will require labor and experimentation. To carry on educational activity within the students' total significant experience, not in some selected fragment of it, is the essential matter. For the student should live as a completely functional being, economic, social, biologic, intellectual, or as completely so as is permitted of man. He should, in other words, be mature. His education should be within the processes of normal community life and occupation. College should be a part and quality of his total behavior.[11]

Unrest in the University

While many of the pressures for change are generated in the environment external to the university, potent forces are at work inside it as well. Student discontent has become open and dramatic in recent years, and we have seen militant student protest spread from Berkeley not only throughout the United States but to Berlin, London, Paris, Prague, and many other university cities throughout the world.

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[8] *Ibid.,* pp. 78-79.

[9] Baker Brownell, *The College and the Community: A Critical Study of Higher Education* (New York: Harper, 1952), p. 36.

[10] *Ibid.,* p. 148.

[11] *Ibid.,* pp. 14-15.

Student protest itself is nothing new. Kibre gives an account of an incident in Paris in the fourteenth century. The provost of the city, one Pierre Jumel, disregarding one of the long-established privileges of students at the university, that of immunity from trial before a civil magistrate, had tried and hanged a scholar clerk in spite of repeated requests to surrender him to the proper ecclesiastical judges. The provost was denounced by both the university and the clergy of the city. The clergy then

> . . . congregated in front of the provost's residence and fulminated orally the ban of excommunication and of anathema against him. They threw stones at his house, while they chanted aloud: "Depart, depart, evil Satan, take cognizance of the iniquity which you have committed against the honor of the Holy Mother Church; and of the manner in which you have so greatly dishonored yourself, and in which you have struck at its liberties. Otherwise, you shall share the lot of Dathan and Abiram whom the earth swallowed up alive." [12]

The effect in Paris was staggering in comparison to the limited impact of contemporary student protest. The result of the Paris protest was that

> . . . specific penalties were imposed upon the provost. He was dismissed from his office by the king. And, in compliance with the university's demand that he be made to show his recognition of the enormity of his guilt, he was obliged to take down the body of the scholar from the gallows and to kiss it. He was then required to make the journey to the papal curia to obtain absolution from the ban of excommunication. Moreover, as a perpetual penance, to be shared by future provosts of the city, Pierre Jumel was to be obliged to set up two chapels and to provide them with an income of twenty Parisian pounds each. The university was to name the chaplains.[13]

It is obvious that the violence accompanying student protest today has still to reach the heights achieved in the medieval universities. Schachner has described one incident at Oxford early in the thirteenth century. The citizens of Oxford at this time were resentful of the injustices that obtained as a result of the fact that students, defined as members of the clergy, could not be held accountable to either civil or criminal law as we now use these terms. The simmering resentment finally spilled over when an incident involving a shopkeeper and a small group of students grew into mob violence. Within a day, the affair had grown from a confrontation involving a handful, to virtual battles in the streets. Schachner recounts what happened on the second day.

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[12] Pearl Kibre, *Scholarly Privileges in the Middle Ages* (Cambridge: Medieval Academy of America, 1962), p. 134.

[13] *Ibid.*, p. 134-35.

> All night the citizens from surrounding towns and villages poured into Oxford, thirsting to crush the hated clerics once and for all. The students naturally received no access of reinforcements. The next day the battle was resumed, the townsmen again being the aggressors. They caught "certain scholars walking after dinner in Beaumont," killing one and wounding others. Then on into the University quarter itself, where the scholars defended themselves desperately, fighting from street to street, pouring their bolts and arrows from the windows of beleaguered houses. But the army of townsmen was not to be denied. The students were overwhelmed; their ranks broke, and the fight developed into a total rout. Whoever could, fled the town; others attempted a last stand in their houses, and still others sought sanctuary in the churches and monasteries of the quarter.
>
> For two days the mob rioted and pillaged and slew. There was no glutting their bloodlust and their hatred of all clergy. The poor scholars were dragged out of their hiding-places and ruthlessly butchered; the houses were literally torn down and the schools wrecked. Even the churches provided no sanctuary, nor did the appeals of the monks avail, even though the secular Regulars were held in far greater respect than the secular clergy. Trembling clerics were torn from the altars, and there is testimony to the effect that two chaplains were flayed alive, the mob having suddenly reverted to the practices of their barbarous ancestors. When the pillage was over, the University had vanished, seemingly never to return.[14]

Some idea of the power of the medieval university can be seen in the response of the King when news of the outrage reached his ears:

> Henceforth, said the royal decree, the University was to have full jurisdiction over the town in so far as the following matters were concerned: the regulation of all food supplies, marketplaces, weights and measures; cleansing and paving of streets; authority to fix rents for schools and halls housing scholars; punishment of all citizens caught bearing arms contrary to law; and power to decree forfeiture of unwholesome or "incompetent" victuals, which, it was decreed, were to be turned over to the Hospital of St. John! Which last astounding provision speaks volumes for the care given to the sick of the time. No longer was Oxford a royal town; it became a hostage to the University whose Chancellor possessed more power than its own Mayor and Council.[15]

It is true, of course, that the student unrest of today is different in many specific ways. The university of today does not possess the power of the medieval university (or, if it does, it is unwilling to exercise it). Certainly the issues that concern the students are very different. Today a major dimension of students' protest concerns their educational experience at the university or, more precisely, what is seen as a lack of genuinely educational experience. One of the student documents produced during the events at Berkeley in 1964 expressed the problem as follows:

> The best way to identify the parts of our Multiversity machinery is simply to observe it "stripped down" to the bare essentials. In the context of a dazzling

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[14] Nathan Schachner, *The Mediaeval Universities* (New York: Frederick A. Stokes, 1938), pp. 204-205.

[15] *Ibid.*, p. 205.

> circus of "bait," which obscures our vision of the machinery, we get a four-year-long series of sharp staccatos: eight semesters, forty courses, one hundred twenty or more "units," ten to fifteen impersonal lectures *per week,* one to three oversized discussion meetings per week led by poorly paid graduate student "teachers." Over a period of four years the student-cog receives close to forty bibliographies; evaluation amounts to little more than pushing the test button, which results in over one hundred regurgitations in four years; and the writing of twenty to thirty-five "papers" in four years in this context means that they are of necessity technically and substantially poor due to a lack of time for thought. The course-grade-unit structure, resting on the foundation of departmentalization, produces knowledge for the student-cog which has been exploded into thousands of bits and is force-fed, by the coercion of grades. We all know what happens when we really get "turned on" by a great idea, a great man, or a great book: we pursue that interest at the risk of flunking out. The pursuit of thought, a painful but highly exhilarating process, requires, above all, the element of time.
>
> Human nerves and flesh are transmuted under the pressure and stress of the university routine. It is as though we have become raw material in the strictly inorganic sense.[16]

Some idea of what the students want can be found in the list of demands prepared by another participant in the Berkeley troubles.

> 1. Immediate commitment of the university to the total elimination of the course/grade/unit system of undergraduate learning in the social sciences and humanities.
> 2. Immediate disbanding of all university dorm and living group rules which prescribe hours and which provide for a system of student-imposed discipline, thereby dividing students against themselves.
> 3. Immediate negotiations on the establishment of a permanent student voice which is effective (that is, independent) in running university affairs.
> 4. Immediate efforts to begin recruitment of an undergraduate teaching faculty to handle undergraduate learning in social sciences and humanities.
> 5. Immediate negotiations regarding two methods of undergraduate learning which provide for the basic freedom required in learning:
>   a. A terminal examination system which will be voluntary and an option with "b."
>   b. Immediate creation of undergraduate programs of a wide variety in which the student will be given careful, but minimal guidance, without courses, grades, and units.
>   c. Immediate establishment of a university committee to deal with these demands on the Berkeley campus.[17]

The potency of these ideas lies not so much in their innovativeness (they are, in fact, educationally conservative), but in the militancy which accompanies them. We now have more than discontented students; we have discontented and active students.

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[16] Hal Draper, *Berkeley: The New Student Revolt* (New York: Grove Press, 1965), pp. 191-192.

[17] Bradford Cleveland, "A Letter to Undergraduates" in Seymour Lipset and Sheldon S. Wolin, eds., *The Berkeley Student Revolt: Facts and Interpretations* (Garden City, N. Y.: Doubleday, 1965), p. 80.

Since 1964 the techniques of student protest have become progressively more refined and sophisticated. The sit-in, for example, has a long history in protest movements. Observing its effectiveness in civil rights issues, the students employed it at Berkeley, establishing a dramatic impact in a way visible to the rest of the world. Since then the sit-in has been modified and sharpened in its use at such places as Columbia and the Hornsey College of Art in London. The Hornsey College experience must represent some high water mark in student protest, for there, for a period of several weeks, the students literally occupied the building of the college maintaining not only such facilities and services as the cafeteria, switchboard, and routine maintenance, but even arranging for academic experiences which they found meaningful.

Armed with an array of protest techniques, increasingly aware of the important targets of their protest, students clearly are going to emerge as a key element in changing the contemporary American (and European) university. A note of caution does need to be added. These changes are not likely to be as extensive or come as fast as students hope. Even though the 1964 disturbances at Berkeley led to the so-called Muscatine Report ("Education at Berkeley: Report of the Select Committee on Education," University of California, Berkeley, Faculty Senate, March 1966), it is questionable that much has changed for the typical undergraduate at Berkeley. This is due in no small amount to the inconsistency, if not ignorance, in the thinking about higher education on the part of the students. For example, one finds students simultaneously admiring the conservative educational views of persons such as Robert Hutchins and arguing for a "wide variety" of undergraduate programs, within a minimum of guidance. Nonetheless, as a basic component of the university, present-day students are discontented and militant, and their unrest is sure to be a factor in the next transformation of the university.

Increased Federal Involvement in the University

The rapid transformation of the contemporary university has many aspects difficult to distill in descriptive or quantitative terms. It is obvious that, since growth in the numbers of students has by far outpaced the founding of new institutions, the present university, especially the public university, is teeming with students.

But other factors are at work which have additional and distinctive effects on the quality of the university life. One is the increased involvement of the federal government in higher education. There is, of course, nothing new in the fact that the national government is participating in the affairs of higher education, or even exerting influence on its shape and structure. To pick two earlier examples, both the Land Grant Act of 1862 and the "GI Bill" after World War II have had enduring effects on higher education.

One distinguishing characteristic of the present situation is the high level of federal involvement in financial support of higher education.

The figures are impressive. In the brief period between the 1957-58 and 1966-67 academic years, the federal share of expenditures for higher education rose sharply, from 13.6 to 23.1 percent. Simple projection of this trend suggests that in 1968-69 roughly one dollar in four spent for higher education is coming from the federal government. This has required a great increase in the volume of support for higher education. In the period from 1963 to 1966 alone, the total federal obligations to institutions of higher education more than doubled, rising from $1.4 to $3.0 billion.[18]

This heavy investment has produced a number of effects on the campus. One effect has been to alter the role of the faculty member as a teacher and a researcher. Without question, the traditional "balance" of the teaching and research roles has been upset. With an increased emphasis being placed upon research involvement, the result has been a lowering of teaching loads. When we add to this the fact that the academic rewards flow to research, rather than to teaching, we come to the present situation with the scholars retreating from the classroom.

However, not all the federal funds have been for research in scientific fields. In fact, in the most recent years the rate of increase in federal obligations for nonscientific activities has outdistanced the growth of funds for scientific activities, although a great majority of governmental funds in higher education still is provided for the support of academic science.[19] At the peripheries of many campuses today, the results of such expenditures can be seen in the signs directing us to VISTA, Upward Bound, HEP, Headstart, or Centers for Aging, Mental Retardation, Juvenile Delinquency, Vocational Education, or Higher Education.

It is clear that the explicit role given to the university for both research and educational activities in the rapid proliferation of legislation relating to poverty, juvenile delinquency, manpower development, vocational education, elementary and secondary education, mental retardation, and aging (to mention some of the major legislative actions) is bringing about an additional transformation of higher education. In their own way, these are forging a new sense of service in the universities, service dependent upon federal support.

The "Law and Order" Crisis

The field of corrections is coming under increasing stress with the emergence of the present day "law and order" crisis. To be sure, for some the problem is one of political convenience, a campaign issue which can be used to mobilize citizen interest and support. Regardless of politics, however, crime will remain as an issue for our society for some time to come.

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[18] National Science Foundation, *Federal Support for Academic Science and Other Educational Activities in Universities and Colleges, Fiscal Years 1963-66*, NSF 67-14 (Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1967), pp. 5-6.

[19] *Ibid.* Federal support for nonscience activities in universities and colleges rose from 6 percent of total federal support in 1963 to 28 percent in 1966.

Two major facts will account for this continued concern with criminal deviance. One, there is marked public concern with the continued increase in crime rates. Although population growth is one of the significant contributing factors in the total amount of crime, studies show that the number of offenses, crimes of violence, crimes against property, have been increasing and increasing faster than population growth. This is especially true of crimes against property, as larceny of $50 and over is up more than 550 percent over 1933, and burglary rates have nearly doubled. The upward trend for 1960-65 has been faster than the long-term trend; that is, it is up 25 percent for violent crimes and 36 percent for property crimes.[20]

A second factor contributing to the present stress on the correctional system is the growing evidence of the inability of corrections to correct. Most studies show that there is a direct, rather than inverse, relationship between correctional system involvement and recidivism, *i.e.,* the greater the contact with corrections, the higher the probability of recidivism. Illustrative of the attack on corrections is the 1967 Uniform Crime Reports, which finds a 60 percent recidivism rate among a group of offenders being followed over time in an investigation of criminal careers, using the finding to launch an attack on the questionable effectiveness of rehabilitation.

It seems inevitable at this point that the correctional system must change in order to respond to this challenge. These changes will require new definition of tasks to be accomplished, which by direct implication calls for new educational and training programs. In short, as pressures for change are exerted on corrections, these pressures are in turn passed on into training efforts and thus ultimately to the universities.

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[20] President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice, *Task Force Report: Crime and Its Impact—An Assessment* (Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1967), p. 20.

Chapter 4. THE PRESENT EDUCATIONAL STRUCTURE

Up to this point, we have considered factors both at the university and in the correctional field that promote or hinder growth of collaborative efforts between higher education and corrections. Before we look at the models available for cooperative growth, it is important to obtain a firm fix on the diverse nature of the present structure of higher education. The university of today has responded to a number of different forces and thus represents a conglomeration of traditions and a correspondingly complex organization.

Structure of the University

No brief description can adequately portray the diversity of university structures. Since public higher education has been the major educational resource for corrections, the following descriptions will focus mainly on public institutions. The public universities themselves are diverse; they vary in size, entrance requirements, student fees, emphasis on graduate instruction, and provision of professional schools, among other things. However, there is a relatively standard form of organization, in which many component units provide a variety of undergraduate and graduate instruction. For purposes of illustration, we shall examine here one of the larger public universities, the University of Michigan. As is true of most public universities, one is easily overwhelmed by the variety of educational experiences offered. Instruction at Michigan is offered in the following kinds of units.

I. COLLEGE OF LITERATURE, SCIENCE, AND THE ARTS

Purpose: To increase the student's awareness of man and his surroundings and provide him with the tools to process his experiences, such as an ability to discriminate, compare, contrast, analyze, classify, criticize, evaluate, and choose intelligently from varied experiences.

Organization: Courses consist of: (1) content and methodology of the major divisions of learning; (2) depth study of a single subject; and (3) elective courses chosen by the student to further his own interests. Each area has equal weight.

Major divisions include these departments:

Social science — Anthropology, Asian studies, economics, geography, history, journalism, political science, psychology, sociology

Natural science — Astronomy, chemistry, geology, botany, microbiology, mineralogy, natural resources, physics, physiology, zoology

Humanities — Literature, languages, fine arts, philosophy

Degrees conferred: Bachelor of Arts, Bachelor of Science

II. SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES

Organization: The Graduate School administers overall program and controls admission policies, curriculum approval, and requirements for graduate degrees.

Degrees conferred: Master's and doctor's degrees in 91 special programs

III. PROFESSIONAL SCHOOLS OFFERING UNDERGRADUATE AND GRADUATE PROGRAMS

1. *School of Business Administration*

Purpose: To provide a rich program of professional education for future leaders in business organizations and academic institutions, through six programs. Each program has these concerns: (1) to study basic aspects of business; (2) to provide training in analysis of business problems; (3) to provide specialized and technical preparation in specific areas.

Degrees conferred: Bachelor of Business Administration

2. *School of Education*

Purpose: To prepare the student for public school positions; to promote educational research; to relate Michigan public schools more closely to university.

Degrees conferred: Teaching certificate (elementary, secondary); Master of Arts, Master of Science, Doctor of Philosophy, Doctor of Education, Doctor of Philosophy in Education and Psychology, Doctor of Philosophy in English and Education

3. *School of Music*

Purpose: To provide an opportunity for students to continue the serious study of music and acquire a liberal arts background at the same time. The courses emphasize preparation for public performance, teaching private students, or teaching in schools and colleges.

Degrees conferred: Bachelor of Music, Master of Music, Doctor of Musical Arts

4. *School of Natural Resources*

Purpose: To emphasize man's relation to his environment and management of that environment through a specialty like forestry, wildlife management, conservation, fisheries, forest recreation.

Degrees conferred: Bachelor of Science, Bachelor of Science in Forestry, Master in School of Natural Resources, Master of Science, Doctor of Philosophy

5. *College of Pharmacy*

Purpose: To prepare students for pharmaceutical positions in areas such as community practice, hospital pharmacy, manufacturing pharmacy, and government agencies.

Organization: A five-year program accredited by the American Council of Pharmaceutical Education.

Degrees conferred: Bachelor of Science in Pharmacy, Doctor of Pharmacy

6. *College of Architecture and Design*

Purpose: To prepare for successful practice in architecture, with liberal arts background. School also includes departments of art and landscape architecture.

Organization: A five-year program approved by Accrediting Board.

Degrees conferred: Bachelor of Architecture, Master of Architecture, Master of City Planning, Bachelor of Science in Design, Master of Arts, Master of Fine Arts, Bachelor of Landscape Architecture, Master and Doctor of Philosophy in Landscape Architecture.

7. *School of Nursing*

Purpose: To provide students with nursing skills and with knowledge of basic biological, physical, and social sciences.

Organization: Courses offered in: (1) prevention of disease; (2) promotion of health; (3) formulation of nursing care plan and provision for nursing therapy.

Degrees conferred: Bachelor of Science in Nursing.

8. *College of Engineering*

Purpose: To prepare students to take positions of leadership commensurate with their ability in a world where science, engineering, and human relations are of basic importance.

Organization: Nineteen special programs offer these degrees: Bachelor of Science in Engineering, Master of Science in Engineering, Master of Science, with professional degrees in 13 special areas.

9. *School of Dentistry* — Dental Hygiene Program

Purpose: To train hygienists.

Organization: Two-year and four-year programs.

Degrees conferred: Certificate in dental hygiene; joint degree with College of Literature, Science, and the Arts.

10. *School of Public Health*

Purpose: To provide professional education and training in public health; disseminate knowledge of hygiene, public health, and preventive medicine through general and special courses of instruction; perform research.

Organization: Training in six major programs accredited by the American Public Health Association; two-year program for undergraduates.

Degrees conferred: Bachelor of Science in Public Health Nursing; Master and Doctor of Public Health in 14 special programs.

IV. PROFESSIONAL SCHOOLS OFFERING GRADUATE PROGRAMS ONLY

1. *Institute of Public Administration*

Purpose: To prepare students for public service through specialized training courses; provide resources to public agencies through in-service training and research by the Bureau of Government Research; provide technical advice and assistance on problems of local, state, and national government.

Organization: Administered as an institute. Offers courses on interdisciplinary basis.

Degrees conferred: Master of Public Administration, Doctor of Philosophy

2. *School of Social Work*

Purpose: To prepare qualified social work professionals through two-year graduate program covering (1) social services and social policy; (2) human growth and behavior; (3) social work practice.

Degrees conferred: Master of Social Work.

3. *Graduate School of Business Administration*

Purpose: Advanced studies in business that emphasize research on fundamental business problems, provide special programs such as quantitative methods, behavioral sciences, and international business.

Degrees conferred: Master of Business Administration, Master of Actuarial Science, Master of Hospital Administration, Doctor of Philosophy.

4. *School of Law*

Purpose: Broad training for practice of law in enlightened manner, and the training of law teachers, scholars, writers. Instruction on all aspects of law.

Degrees conferred: Bachelor of Laws, Master of Laws, Master of Comparative Law, Doctor of the Science of Law.

5. *W. K. Kellogg Foundation Institute of Graduate and Postgraduate Dentistry*

Purpose: To train dentists and offer advanced training.

Degrees conferred: Doctor of Dental Surgery, Master of Science, Doctor of Philosophy.

6. *School of Medicine*

Purpose: To train medical doctors.

Organization: First two years emphasize basic science as the foundation of clinical medicine. Third and fourth years are clinical in orientation.

Degrees conferred: Doctor of Medicine.

The Liberal Arts College

Amidst the diversity and complexity of this kind of university structure, there are two particularly significant units that need to be considered for their implications for the field of corrections. First, the liberal arts unit and second, the professional school of social work. The liberal arts unit is important since it is the avenue of entrance into corrections either directly (for most of those who enter the field with only the bachelor's degree), or indirectly (for those who first obtain a liberal arts degree and then move into a professional school).

The primary goal of a liberal arts program is described by the University of Michigan catalogue in the following terms.

> The college aims at expanding the intellectual frontiers of each student by providing him with knowledge, not in the narrow sense of facts alone, but in the broadest sense of new awarenesses about man and his surroundings. In addition, the College strives to give a student the ability to compare, contrast, analyze, classify, discriminate, criticize, evaluate, and choose intelligently from among the myriad experiences and ideas which confront him . . .[1]

At the University of Michigan the student's time is divided into three large blocks. One-third of his time – the major part of his first two years – is spent in exploring the "major divisions of learning": his own language, a foreign language, social science, natural science, and humanities. The second block of time is spent studying one subject in depth. In the third block he may pursue his special interests.

The following is an outline of the program of the College of Literature, Science, and the Arts, for the student desiring a Bachelor of Arts and a Bachelor of Science degree. He must take courses totaling 120 semester hours and make a grade average of at least C.

The first two years are occupied primarily with courses required of all students.

Physical Education, 3 hours
English, 3 hours
Foreign Language, two years or equivalent
Social Science, 12 hours
    At least one course in two of the following departments:

Anthropology	Journalism
Economics	Political Science
Geography	Psychology
History	Sociology

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[1] University of Michigan, College of Literature, Science and the Arts, *Announcement 1966-67*, pt. 13, pp. 6-7.

Science, 12 hours

At least one course in each of these groups, and a two-term sequence in a single group.

- I. Astronomy
  - Chemistry
  - Geology
  - Physics
- II. Anthropology
  - Botany
  - Geology
  - Microbiology
  - Mineralogy
  - Natural Resources
- III. Physiology
  - Psychology
  - Zoology

Humanities, 12 hours

At least one course in two groups and a two-term sequence in one group.

- I. Literature
- II. Languages
- III. Fine Arts
- IV. Philosophy

After these courses, the student concentrates in any of the area programs of the departments or chooses an interdepartmental program. The content of his program is approved by his adviser. Only 40 hours may be taken in a single department. At the University of Michigan the student may choose to study from any one of nearly thirty departments:

> Anthropology, Astronomy, Botany, Chemistry, Classical Studies, Communication Sciences, Economics, English Language and Literature, Far Eastern Language and Literature, History, History of Art, Journalism, Library Science, Linguistics, Mathematics, Music, Near Eastern Language and Literature, Philosophy, Physics, Political Science, Psychology, Romance Language and Literature, Slavic Language and Literature, Sociology, Speech, Zoology.

The situation tends to be similar elsewhere. A large state university, Wisconsin, has 41 departments, while Hunter College in New York City has 23. However varied the number of subject areas are at the various colleges, they all fall loosely within the four areas of: humanities, social science, science, and the creative arts.

Significance for Corrections

No program of cooperative development affecting corrections and higher education can ignore the liberal arts model of education. Not only does it provide the terminal degree held by many persons now working in corrections, but it also has a heavy influence on all thinking about developments in higher education.

Nonetheless, the liberal arts college presents several difficulties when considered as a potential for correctional programs.

1. The liberal arts program is specifically nonvocational. The liberal arts college is interested in the broad education of the student, and the departments are interested in acquiring and transmitting knowledge of their field.

2. The liberal arts college experience is fragmented. Unless the student has a great deal of ingenuity, there is little opportunity to go

beyond a cafeteria style of education. Courses are taken virtually in random order, with little concern for the coherence of the individual student's experience.

3. There may be very little in the existing course offerings which deals with the topic of corrections. Look at the sociology department for example; of the 40 hours the student might take in sociology at Michigan, only six relate directly to the field of corrections. The other 34 hours the student might take in sociology touch the surface of the whole discipline.

4. Courses are not skill-oriented. So there is no immediate way to test the ideas of the classroom or develop relevant skills.

5. The student is insulated from the ideas and thought of those who are working in the field. His exposure is limited almost exclusively to those who have academic credentials. There are few social workers, group workers, prison wardens or guards, practicing psychiatrists, parole officers, applied researchers on university campuses. If there are, they are virtually certain not to be teaching in a liberal arts program.

The Professional School of Social Work

A different concept of education has emerged in the universities through the professional schools, of which the school of social work is perhaps of the greatest relevance for corrections. Schools of social work grew out of the community charity and social science movements of the nineteenth century. They represented an awareness of the plight of the poor, who had not fared well in America's period of industrialization. As concerned middle-class individuals and groups organized, they became aware of the complexities of solving the problems of the poor and also aware of the need for systematic approaches to these problems. Consequently, they developed institutes and training courses, replaced their volunteer "friendly visitors" with salaried workers, and exchanged the apprenticeship system of the older professions of medicine and law for a more formal type of vocational education.

The first institutes, which dated from 1889, were sponsored by organized charities. Another channel of development was through university extension work. When the Institute of Social Science, an early experiment in extension work at the University of Chicago, became the Chicago School of Civics and Philanthropy in 1907, the first real sponsorship of a school of social work by a university was achieved.[2]

Not all leaders in the social work field thought it advantageous for the institutes to relate themselves to universities, which were thought to be too theoretical and not sufficiently practical. The Chicago School, for example, retained a good deal of independence, establishing a curriculum based on a generic or all-inclusive approach and drawing upon the behavioral sciences, law, and medicine. Moreover, the curriculum drew on many sources outside the university. Other schools of social work used the same approach.

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[2] This section draws mainly upon Ernest V. Hollis and Alice L. Taylor, *Social Work Education in the United States* (New York: Columbia University Press, 1951), pp. 5-10.

For example, the development of curriculum and field practice in psychiatric social work grew largely out of the experience of social workers in hospitals and in family and children's agencies who worked with troubled people. Another curriculum area — group work — developed out of the experiences of leisure-time agencies such as the Young Men's and Young Women's Christian Associations, the Boy Scouts, and the Girl Scouts, as well as the first efforts to use the discussion group as a creative instrument. Yet another part of the curriculum — community organization — has drawn heavily upon the experience of the Community Chests and similar groups, whose national organization has provided leadership in setting up standards and developing methods of community organization and social planning.

Hollis and Taylor point out that by the 1920's the professional social work philosophy and a distinctive method of practice had emerged and that

> . . . many of the characteristics of American social work education as we see it today were apparent. It was rooted more in pratice than in the academic setting; it was developing from specializations toward a common base; it was showing strength in delineating and teaching of process, particularly in casework, but was weak in preparing for administration, community organization, group work, research, and supervision; it was lacking in clarity about philosophic foundations; but it was already making a significant contribution to education through field work training in which emphasis was on knowledge becoming a part of the "doer" instead of merely adding to intellectual understanding.[3]

Today the schools show little change from their initial philosophy; rather changes in emphasis. An examination of the program at Michigan and other schools such as the New York School of Social Work at Columbia shows that most schools of social work expect their students to acquire competency in the following areas:

1. Social services: A study of the evolvement of goals, programs, organizations and administrations in relation to a changing society and a changing social welfare policy.
2. Behavioral theory: Normal and pathological aspects of human growth and development from the point of view of dynamic psychiatry, sociocultural concepts relating to family structure, social stratification, ethnic systems, values and social role, and group development and behavior.
3. Scientific methods and research: The nature of the scientific method, goals, content, and methods of social work research.
4. Methods of social work practice: Concepts and principles under-

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[3] *Ibid.*, p. 21.

lying the practice of social casework, social group work, community organization, and application of these in a practical setting.[4]

Each student will be required to take courses in these areas, and to choose one social work method for concentration, typically casework, group work, or community development. Also required during both years of the two-year program are field courses. In order to progress in the field placement from the first year to the second, the student must demonstrate an ability to undertake assignments and activities requiring greater knowledge and skill. Unlike other kinds of academic graduate programs, the school of social work provides a place for actual work experience as part of the educational process.

Significance for Corrections

The social work school model has much to recommend it as an alternative to the liberal arts college model. As is typical of other professional schools, the educational experience is designed around a set of vocational goals, i.e., to produce trained and qualified professionals. Rather than the fragmented virtually random choice of the elective undergraduate system in most schools, a core set of courses is required in order to assure the assimilation of a basic set of skills. Furthermore, it is required that much of the training take place "in the field," exposing the student to not only the theoretical principles laid down in academia but to the knowledge (and ignorance) of the practicing professionals as well.

Whatever its virtues, the school of social work does have some major limitations as a model for innovations in correctional training. One fundamental problem is the fact that social work schools are limited to graduate students. Given the large number of correctional positions which are filled by persons with less than graduate training, educational programs are required which can be directed at undergraduate and lower-level students. A second problem is that the limited supply of graduate social workers, spread over a number of human service occupations, can never meet the personnel needs of corrections. A final factor is that, given the demands for products of the social work schools, the correctional field does not have very high priority either in developing curriculum or in occupational choices of graduate social workers.

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[4] See Columbia University, New York School of Social Work, *Catalog for 1967-68;* University of Michigan, School of Social Work, *Announcement 1967-68.*

Part II: Some Models for Collaborative Education and Training

Chapter 5. MODELS WHICH MODIFY THE UNDERGRADUATE CURRICULUM

However powerful the conservative tendencies of higher education, the university has been unable to ignore the pressures for innovation. The net result of the many forces within and without the university has been change, sometimes a painful groping to recreate a mythical past. In the following sections we will review a number of the models of education and training that have been tried in recent years, focusing first on attempts to modify the undergraduate curriculum to make it vocationally relevant in directions of significance for corrections. Later sections will deal with attempts to introduce special methods of training which fall outside the traditional undergraduate and graduate structure of the university.

Antioch College Cooperative Program

One of the initial attempts to modify the liberal arts tradition by introducing vocational experiences into undergraduate education took place at Antioch College. A private college of liberal arts and sciences located in Yellow Springs, Ohio, Antioch in 1921, under the leadership of its president, Arthur Morgan, reorganized its program to include the cooperative or study-plus-work plan. This plan involves an alternating schedule whereby students study one term and then work the next term throughout their entire college program of four to five years. The catalog description makes explicit the linkage assumed between education and other sectors of life.

> The purpose of the cooperative program is to expose students to situations that are educationally, socially, culturally, and geographically different from either the life of the campus or the environment from which they come.[1]

When a student enters Antioch, he takes examinations that will help him and his advisers to identify his abilities, achievements, interests, and needs. Together they begin planning his courses and accompanying schedule. All students start with general education courses (66 to 71 of the 160 required academic credits) in three areas — the humanities, the physical sciences, and the social sciences. The student's program includes courses in each of the three areas, courses in his major field, cooperative jobs, and community activities. As far as possible, the cooperative program is an avenue for learning those particular skills, facts, methods, and applications he will need for employment immediately after graduation.

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[1] Antioch College, *Catalog, 1964-65*, p. 21.

Securing jobs and supervising the placement of the students in the cooperative program is the responsibility of the extramural faculty. Many positions have been continuously filled by Antioch students for years. These jobs are in settings of many kinds: business offices, industrial plants, research laboratories, social agencies, government bureaus, newspapers, schools, hospitals, museums, department stores. The student may select placement in one of these positions; he may secure a job of his own with the advice of the extramural adviser; or he may arrange an independent study project for one of his work periods. A fourth alternative is to spend a year on a foreign campus or a semester in Mexico.

Once the student is on the job, he is expected to perform like any other employee. He receives a regular salary, from which he must pay expenses. The employer may discharge the student if he performs poorly. At the conclusion of the work period, the employer rates the student's performance; satisfactory work gives the student cooperative credit toward his degree.

Once each term the extramural adviser visits the work setting to talk with the student and make arrangements for the student's successor. When the student returns to campus, he sits down with his academic and extramural advisers to evaluate his progress in light of his off-campus experience. Added to this evaluation are comments and formal performance ratings from employers, extramural staff comments during field visits, and the student's own report of his experiences. It is the purpose of the Antioch program "to send students back and forth between theory and practice, thought and action, learning and living."

Significance for Corrections

The program at Antioch is an attempt to make the student's college experience a *total* educational experience by broadening the world view of the students.

> When they come to Antioch, students report that their goals in college are chiefly to get a basic general education, to develop knowledge of community and world problems, and to develop an ability to get along with different kinds of people. By the time they are seniors they report that a wide range of changes has occurred in their world view, personal philosophy, personality, intellect, academic interest, social development, and career plans.[2]

The chance to use, and test, knowledge acquired in the classroom while still in academic status is a vast improvement on the liberal arts approach for the vocationally oriented student. If he is interested in a career in the corrections field, it is possible that the student can plan to be exposed to several aspects of the field through his various work periods, or he may become involved in a single program and choose consecutive placements in it, bringing more ideas with him each time and taking back a higher level of skill in the work. It is through the work program that many Antioch students obtain their first jobs.

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[2] *Ibid.*, pp. 8-9.

The model is a good one, yet it has inherent problems as a general scheme for the correctional field.

1. The work-study, on-off model is in its own way a fragmented educational experience. The work program does not necessarily relate to the student's courses, and the burden of integrating the varied experiences is on the student. The liberal arts program itself is set; and, except for independent study, there is no way for the student to learn special skills or gain special knowledge that might relate directly to his work. Also, the interrupted school year makes it more difficult for the student to build relationships with other students and with faculty members.

2. The cooperative work experience is cooperative only for the student. The education is a one-way process for the student's benefit. Nothing is built in to enable professors to learn from the field staff or employers. Nothing is provided to help employers take advantage of the resources of the college.

As a model, then, the Antioch program has pioneered in the recognition that work can play an important role in the educational process. Its major limitation has been failure to integrate the work and the academic experiences into a unified educational program.

The "Sandwich" Model, Enfield College of Technology

Examination of models for cooperative ventures in education need not be restricted to programs in the United States. Great Britain has been experiencing a rapid growth in higher education in the past few years. Much of the growth has gone into the development of new universities — new, that is, in terms of their existence and buildings but not necessarily in their ideas of higher education.

Although many British universities are firmly geared to the Oxford and Cambridge tradition, even to the actual building of cloisters, rapid growth of British higher education has given some institutions freedom and encouragement to develop new models of education, as illustrated by the social science course offered at Enfield College of Technology located in Enfield, Middlesex. The program at Enfield is built around the "sandwich" idea, where the vocational experience is sandwiched between two sets of academic experiences. One of the distinctive aspects of the program at Enfield is its conception of the necessity of building a vocational component into the course.

> It is the policy of the College that the courses it offers should explicitly consider the student's relation to his career intention, or, more broadly, the problems he will encounter in the world beyond his period of study. It is not adequate to regard this as an issue dependent on the inspiration of the individual student, to which no explicit consideration need be given. Nor is it adequate to embrace a crude conception of vocationalism in which a student is armed solely with techniques related to his expected career. In whatever technical way we equip the student, he will find himself in a changing world in which ideas and tech-

> niques rapidly become obsolescent. Our aim is to concentrate on the process in which the student is involved and by this means to foster the capacity to accept change as an integral part of his environment.[3]

One major concern of the planners of the Enfield program has been flexibility. They recognized the need to build into the course certain arbitrary decisions, but at the same time tried to create a set of experiences whereby students would not be required to make early choices which would restrict severely their later development.

The first-year course is broadly conceived and common to all students. From this common base the choice is gradually broadened. In the second year a limited choice — which even at this stage may be deferred by an appropriate selection of options — is made between two areas. The degree of the student's commitment does not necessarily prejudice selections in the third and fourth years. In these final years the student has considerable choice in the degree of specialization. The vocational specification is concentrated in the final two years of the course when, it is felt, the student should be in a position to select with confidence the broad area in which the ideas developed previously will be finally located.

At the same time the course is designed to maximize the integration of vocational experiences in the real world with the academic content of work at the college. The last two years are treated as a unity, the students satisfying the requirements of 10 equivalent units during that time. At least five and not more than seven of these units must be in the form of examined papers; the remainder is in the form of written work based on some kind of "sandwich" experience. Within limits the student selects the degree to which his work will take the form of orthodox examination papers or of supervised industrial contact; he adapts the length and nature of the industrial period to the particular needs of his specialization.

Units of a "sandwich" vocational nature are equivalent to units derived from in-college periods. But —

> It is only possible to guarantee this requirement if the sandwich period is very closely supervised and work is produced as a result. These constraints on the sandwich period mean that the college controls the periods spent outside the college, providing an empirical base to a project to be set, controlled and evaluated by college staff.[4]

Among the many kinds of fields and specializations that are available for use in the "sandwich" element of the program are these.

> In Economics: the research department of UNCTAD (United Nations Conference on Trade and Development), Regional Development Councils, National Economic Development Council, as well as nationalized and private industries.

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[3] Enfield College of Technology, *A Proposal for a Social Science Course, submitted to the Council on National Academic Awards*, 1967, p. 3.

[4] *Ibid.*

In Sociology: the research establishments of the Civil Service, BOAC, market research for such firms as Proctor and Gamble, personnel work, and operational research in industry.

In Developing Countries: such agencies as the Ministry of Overseas Development, the Institute of Overseas Development, or various UN organizations.

In Social Work: work as child care officers or probation officers.

In Regional and Urban Planning: the Ministry of Housing and Local Government, the Town Planning Institute, Greater London Council Planning Department, and others.

Significance for Corrections

A number of aspects of this program merit close attention as models of agency-university collaboration in education and training. Strong points of the program include:

1. An explicit recognition of the vocational relevance of higher education which leads to the inclusion of work experiences as part of the educational process. Such a program is seen as benefiting students by enabling them to integrate academic and vocational experiences in a way that strengthens the total educational process. This course yields benefits to agencies both in the creation of better-trained recruits and in the development of a liaison with higher education which over time could expand so that additional collaborative training could be developed.
2. A recognition of the need for a flexible system of the work-experience aspect of an academic program.
3. An approach which is multidisciplinary, which gives the students some additional flexibility in the evolving choice of an ultimate professional career.
4. A recognition of the importance of close links between the college and the work experience, in order to assure that the work is integrated into a total academic process.

Without detracting in any way from the strong merits of the Enfield program, one can say that there would be several problems in using it as a model for collaborative efforts in the field of corrections.

1. The course is by its very nature limited to college-level work. This carries with it a number of immediate implications. At one level, only "qualified" students can be admitted, whereas many of the individuals that corrections might wish to have trained may not possess the minimum qualifications for entrance into a college or university. Perhaps more important, by its very nature this is a degree-oriented program. However important it is to create new and exciting ways of educating undergraduates, we must also look to nondegree models if

we are to satisfy the wide range of training needs in the field of corrections.

2. This kind of program hardly satisfies the minimum condition of the term "collaborative training." The focus is not on meeting emergent training needs of the staff of an agency or institution, but on providing students with an education appropriate for a bachelor's degree. A whole range of agency-relevant training experience will not, and cannot, be considered within this model.

3. By adding an extra year to the first degree (the undergraduate degree is earned in three years in British universities), the students are asked to pay a large price for the inclusion of the vocational experience. It would be hoped that in the United States, where we have a different approach to such things as courses and units of credits, that vocational experiences would be developed which could be included as part of the present four-year undergraduate program.

San Diego State College Undergraduate Social Welfare Program

One of the most potent of the professional orientations in the field of corrections is that of social work. Indeed, for many service and administrative positions in the field, the professional credential, Master of Social Work, is a prerequisite, even though the supply of graduates from schools of social work clearly cannot satisfy the demand. One possible response to this situation is for schools of social work to provide some type of professional training at the undergraduate level.

Such a program was being initiated at San Diego State College in the Fall of 1968. Plans for the program were described by two faculty members in an issue of the *Helping Services Forum.*[5] This program is seen as one which provides a continuum of educational experiences linking undergraduate and graduate study which yields three things: a liberal arts education; preparation of those providing social welfare services with a bachelor's degree; and preparation for admission to graduate study in social work.

This undergraduate welfare major is located in the liberal arts division of college. Virtually no changes were made in the lower-division requirements expected of any other liberal arts student. Depending upon language deficiencies, the liberal arts and science requirements are between 51 and 63 of the 124 units needed for the B.A. degree.

Six of these units (Introductory Sociology and three units of Introductory Economics) are also prerequisites for the social welfare major, thus making it possible for the student to fulfill liberal arts requirements and prerequisites to the major at the same time. Additional prerequisites for the social welfare major are:

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[5] Donald Pilcher and Irving Tebor, "A New Undergraduate Program for Social Welfare Majors," *Helping Services Forum,* I (June 30, 1968), 1-4, 7. The *Forum* is published by the Western Interstate Commission for Higher Education in Boulder, Colorado.

Cultural Anthropology	3
Contemporary Social Problems	3
Statistics	3
Advanced General Psychology	3
Principles of Economics	3

Courses recommended but not required are biology and physiology.

It is in the upper division that the social welfare program begins to make demands on the students. In the wider liberal arts unit, they are required to take three units each in social psychology, psychology, and sociology, each of their own choosing. The distinctive social welfare emphasis comes in the specific offerings of the School of Social Work. In the final two years, the following are required:

Junior Year	*Units*
Man in Society	6
Social Welfare as a Social Institution	6
Senior Year	
Social Work as a Profession	3
Field Experience in Social Welfare	6

In the senior year a course in research entitled "Current Developments in Social Work," will be offered to those desiring to continue graduate work. This is not a requirement of the major but is strongly recommended for those interested in going beyond the baccalaureate degree.

It is useful here to consider the authors' description of some of these course experiences:

> The course entitled Man in Society is concerned with the knowledge and theories of man's physical, psychological, and social growth and behavior. This is new course content for the undergraduate program at San Diego State College and is equivalent to the material on human behavior taught in most graduate schools of social work. Such a course is not often part of the undergraduate curriculum in colleges and universities in the United States. It would be open to anyone with the necessary prerequisites, and it is anticipated that majors in other departments will be interested in it. Man in Society is a two-semester sequence which will attempt to integrate concepts, knowledge, and theory from such areas as psychology, sociology, economics, and anthropology, in order to provide the student with a comprehensive and useful background in human behavior.
>
> Social Welfare as a Social Institution is taught in most undergraduate social welfare programs. This six-unit course will deal with the concepts of social welfare as a social institution in society. It is equivalent to the course material taught in most graduate schools entitled Social Welfare Policy and Services.
>
> In the senior year students in the first semester will be taking two courses which will be taught in the field. Social Work as a Profession will be offered continuously with Field Experience in Social Welfare. The first will cover theoretical

> material and the latter will provide an integrating seminar and a laboratory experience for each student. The integrating seminar is designed to enable the student to apply the theoretical aspects of practice to actual situations encountered in field experience. Approximately eight hours of field experience each week will be required of the student. . . . The field experience course in both semesters will include an integrating seminar. These two courses are the precursors of practice and field instruction in the graduate school.[6]

This program is seen as being innovative in four ways.[7]

1. It is seen as emphasizing the professional preparation, yet reinforcing the importance of the idea of a liberal education.

> It is envisioned that this program will provide a liberal education through its content and its emphasis on conceptual rather than informational teaching, and that it will provide better preparation for those students entering practice immediately following the baccalaureate degree. . . .
>
> In providing the breadth of courses in human behavior as a background, it is necessary to sacrifice on electives. Students will have courses in economics (6 units), political science (6), psychology (9), social psychology (3), sociology (9), and anthropology (3). Nevertheless the course requirements for the major were reduced from 36 to 30 units and the prerequisites remained essentially the same. The 36 units listed above are acquired as part of the major as prerequisites, or as liberal arts requirements. The number of electives, while not allowing the student too much choice, was increased from 9 to 15 units in the upper division and, depending upon the language background for each student, may enable the student to take an additional 10 units of electives either at the lower or upper division. Thus, in the opinion of the faculty the liberal education focus of the program has not only been retained but actually strengthened.

2. The program offers a new kind of course experience at the introductory undergraduate level.

> Such a three-unit course will now be offered to provide lower division students with an opportunity to test their interest in social welfare as a possible career. This is not a required course in the major. It will provide two hours of class and three hours of field experience each week as a means of providing an orientation to the field of social welfare through readings, class discussions, and observation of social welfare activities in the community.

3. The program is organized to take into account special interests of students through an honors course.

> An honors course offered in the senior year will provide an opportunity to superior students to use and develop their talents in a

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[6] *Ibid.*, pp. 3-4.

[7] *Ibid.*, p. 4

variety of ways through a flexible seminar-type class catering to special interests of the students. In addition, a course entitled Special Study and another entitled Investigation and Report provide students with still another avenue for pursuing special interests.

4. It is also argued that the program will provide a continuum of undergraduate education with graduate education making it possible either to shorten the length of the graduate program or to augment its present offerings. As noted above, the undergraduate program has been developed in concert with the five major sequences in the graduate program at San Diego State College.

Significance for Corrections

There is much to commend in, at least, the intent of the program. The attempt to combine a kind of terminal social work professional training along with preparation for graduate school, all within a liberal arts framework, would appear commendable. It may be, however, that this particular combination contributes very little to any of these goals.

Most important for the purposes of this paper, the terminal B.A. component of the program, *i.e.,* the B.A.-level professional training, would appear to be accorded no real importance. The description does not detail what unique skills a B.A.-level person might or should have or how the program is designed to provide such skills. Inasmuch as the *field* of social work gives scant recognition to the idea that professional skills and values can be taught at the B.A. level, the emphasis of this program is not surprising. The program would appear to be "innovative" in that the graduate school of social work has provided a watered-down series of graduate-level courses for undergraduates, without providing either the occupational relevance or the professional rewards that are an inherent part of the graduate program. A program which cannot justify the meshing of educational and skill level *(i.e.,* cannot rationalize why the training is seen as appropriate at the given level), and cannot provide a reward for undertaking the program, will have difficulty in persuading students that it is worthwhile.

Second, when the graduates of this program enter a graduate school of social work (and it is clear from the description that a major purpose is to recruit graduate students in social work), they will find that this preparation will be given scant recognition by the graduate school of social work. The set of interlocking requirements in such schools is relatively rigid and fixed and is designed with little provision for opportunities to bypass them when prior comparable training has been given. What appears likely to happen, in other words, is that the traditional two-year M.S.W. program will be extended to four years.

Third, the program is certainly not innovative in its approach to liberal arts education. It takes as given the academic approach of liberal arts instruction and ignores the possibility that the life experiences inherent in the problems of social work might contribute to a liberalizing educational experience. This is not surprising, since the nature of academic politics is such that a new program cannot raise too many questions about the legitimacy of the current and controlling liberal arts tradition.

The San Diego State College program does at least point out that undergraduate education can be modified to include some emphasis on human service training, and that actual field work not only may be a legitimate educational experience but can be linked into a wider service preparation. Nonetheless, the program is hardly radical educationally. It challenges two assumptions about training, held either by liberal arts colleges or professional schools of social work.

Because the unit does not possess legitimate credentials in the academic departments, the student is exposed to the danger of being labeled as a second-rate social science major within the confines of academia. Just as surely the failure of the unit to provide a graduate degree of the basic professional qualification that is normally a prerequisite to employment in a professional job means that the student is at best a second-rate professional. In view of the urgency of the need for human service training, we must ask if second-rate programs are what we need.

School for Community Service and Public Affairs University of Oregon

One potentially fruitful example of university-developed programs is the School for Community Service at the University of Oregon. Among the factors responsible for the development of this program, most had their origins in the action concerns of individual faculty members in such departments as education, psychology, recreation, and sociology. As the university became increasingly involved in training for the Peace Corps, VISTA, Job Corps, Upward Bound, juvenile delinquency control, and similar enterprises, it became clear that existing educational programs, however adequate for traditional needs, were not adequate to serve either the trainees or the new agencies being created. Because of this concern a new unit was created.[8]

The program is unique in its explicit conceptualization of its product — the graduate. A graduate of the School for Community Service and Public Affairs should have certain important personal characteristics:

. . . self-awareness or self-knowledge sufficient to allow him to listen and observe attentively, to focus on the needs of others, and to take action based on an objective evaluation of goals, possibilities, and barriers

. . . commitment to a social ethic which includes the rights and responsibilities of individuals and of the society; toughness and an ability to withstand stress

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[8] The information in this section is drawn principally from unpublished materials compiled by the School of Community Service.

. . . autonomy, the ability to make independent decisions and take action on these decisions with a willingness to accept responsibility for the consequences

. . . empathy, the ability to feel with others and to correctly perceive the attitudes, values, feelings and life situations of others rather than projecting his own attitudes, etc.

. . . creativity and flexibility in assuming social roles and in working out new ways of approaching problem situations.

Core Competencies To Be Acquired

One core competency is the ability to approach tasks with a problem-solving orientation which includes the definition of the problem, the formulation of goals, the planning and taking of action, and the evaluation of the outcome of the action.

The ability to do a number of different things is necessary to carry out such a problem-solving process. To talk comfortably with a wide variety of people; to ask probing questions and wait for the answers; to organize, relate, and clearly and logically express ideas; and to participate comfortably in group situations — all these skills can be learned, in the main, through other than the traditional classroom experiences.

All students in the School should have some familiarity with action methods or specific strategies of intervention. Students should know that they exist, know how to learn more about them, and where to refer clients if necessary. A number of intervention strategies are too specialized or too highly technical for the undergraduate. Although the student would not have the ability to perform such strategies, he should have information about physical and psychological therapies and techniques, medical treatment, psychotherapy, and behavior modification; the use of computers in administration and research; and program budgeting, systems analysis, or cost-benefit analysis.

Field Work

Another unique aspect of the Oregon program is the explicit framework laid down for field work as an integral part of the training program. The concept that "student learning is generally enhanced through direct involvement and participation in activities which are significantly related to both occupational interests and academic orientation" is the rationale for the program.

On the premise that "field experience is of infinitely greater value to students and cooperating agencies and institutions alike when undertaken within the context of a total educational process," the field study course has been established.

Generally stated, the ultimate goal of field study is to provide well-organized, supervised, and coordinated field experience as part of an educational process by which students can more adequately prepare for the community and public service occupations. It is intended to complement, rather than substitute for, formal academic instruction and to enhance educational development through direct contact and involvement with representative administrative and service agencies.

More specifically, it is intended that field study will:

- ...provide for more effective integration of academic content relating to current and projected programs and activities in the community and public service field.
- ...enable students to develop an awareness and understanding of the basic organization and administration of public and community agencies.
- ...make students aware of particular characteristics of individual and community needs being met through the services and programs of community and public agencies.
- ...enable students to evaluate their attitudes, values, and intellectual and emotional commitment to activities related to their career interests.
- ...demonstrate to students the need for skill development by allowing them to observe the ways in which skills are utilized in actual work situations, and to enhance and test skill development through involvement.

Field study is offered and/or required on a graduated and progressive continuum ranging from short-term limited involvement with a service agency or observational experiences to "block placements" requiring full-time commitment for at least one academic term. As presently conceived, the observational experiences would be most likely to occur in relation to such courses as Career Analysis, Social Welfare Institutions, Criminology, and Delinquency.

Placements cover a wide range of activities and vary from as little as 4 hours per week over one term to as much as 20 hours per week over two, or perhaps even three, terms. Field study assignments may be made either following or prior to certain required course work; they may be undertaken concurrently with course work; or they may include on-site instructional sessions.

When placed for field study, the students are assigned roles or tasks which, insofar as possible, are consistent with the educational objectives of the university as well as the program objectives of the agency.

The responsibility of selection is shared by the university and the agency, with the needs and limitations of both being recognized. Adequate and accurate information regarding students to be placed is compiled and made available to those who make the judgments and decisions for selection. The university and the agency also share the responsibility for supervision of the student, with the university's representative assuming the primary responsibility for determining educational objectives. Consistent and fairly frequent contact between the student, a university representative, and a designated agency representative is necessary in order to ensure progress toward those objectives.

Provision is made for regular and systematic feedback, not only on individual student effort but also with respect to general university program objectives. Final written evaluation of the individual student's performance is a university responsibility, although the judgment and impressions of those within the agency who are in the best position to observe and assess the performance are reflected. All the parties involved understand the criteria for evaluation at the outset of the placement. Program evaluation meetings are held at the end of extended placement periods and include appropriate administrative staff as well as those directly involved in supervision of students.

Significance for Corrections

The establishment of this unit at the University of Oregon provides a useful case history of how new models of higher education evolve. Outside pressures on the university stemmed from its involvement in a variety of federal programs. Equally important were the efforts of established faculty members inside the departments and schools of anthropology, education, law, political science, psychology, recreation, and sociology. The program is oriented toward undergraduates and provides a course of study leading to a degree.

Supporters have been able to overcome, at least in a power sense, any questions of academic respectability by creating a program which accomplishes their innovative goals yet at the same time draws upon a large amount of course work in existing departments. Concerns about assuring a liberal education are met by requiring students to take course work of the same kind and caliber that assure the liberal education of liberal arts graduates, while concerns about the watering down of psychology or sociology that might come if such courses were offered within the school are dealt with by insisting that such courses should be taken within the existing departments.

Problems remain — at least, if this program is to be a model for collaborative ventures between universities and agencies. A type of university bias exists despite the emphasis on at least some of the learning taking place "in the field." The bias is illustrated by the fact that the education is exclusively degree-oriented at the present time. This means that a number of training tasks defined by the needs of the agencies, such as pre-service or in-service training, have not yet been built into the structure of the school. However practical this might be, given the realities of the present political scene of the university, the training program appears to be somewhat one-way because the effort and energies expended benefit the university directly and the agency only indirectly.

Furthermore, only tentative steps have been taken to obtain a fit between external job entrance requirements and the undergraduate training. Unless such linkages are developed, the program will be spuriously vocational and will become ultimately as irrelevant and alienating as a traditional liberal arts program.

A related problem is that the innovations of the school are basically student-centered; they have as their purpose the creation of a new kind of student. Equally important may be faculty-centered innovations which serve the function of creating a new kind of university faculty member, one whose research and training orientations are changed to focus on interests outside the university.

Further, the program is aimed exclusively at undergraduates. Ultimately an adequate program of professional education in the human services generally, and corrections specifically, must provide for a complete flow of educational experiences, from the bottom to the top rungs of the professional positions in the field. This will require an integration of undergraduate and graduate education experiences, from the bottom (*i.e.,* below college level) to the top (*i.e.,* graduate level) rungs of the professional positions in the field.

The WICHE Summer Work-Study Program

A number of programs have evolved which make use of the students' summer vacations. One such is the Summer Work-Study Program of the Western Interstate Commission for Higher Education (WICHE). This program is designed to provide college students with an opportunity to spend 10 weeks gaining both academic and practical experience in the field of mental health. The program is offered at a dozen colleges and universities in the western states in cooperation with state mental health institutions and agencies.

Participating students spend their first and last weeks on the campus. The intervening eight weeks, which include continued academic assignments, are spent in one of the participating mental health agencies under the supervision of both academic faculty and agency professionals. The purpose of the program is described in a WICHE brochure as follows:

> The Summer Work-Study Program is designed to familiarize college students with careers in mental health. . . . Whether they eventually enter the field or not, program students will gain a greater understanding of the efforts and accomplishments being made on behalf of the increasingly large segment of our population who need help.
>
> The ultimate goal of the program is to help college students to make career decisions through observation of professional role models, study, and participation in agency programs. Preliminary evaluation of past Work-Study Programs indicates a large number of students have now become employed in the field.

Students are eligible for this program, generally, if they are attending a college or university in the West and meet other requirements laid down by the participating university. Application is made directly by the student to the college or university of his choice. If selected, the student receives a stipend which is paid by the agency having responsibility for the state's mental health program. (The faculty and institutional instructional staff are paid by either the participating university or agency.)

There are a number of advantages to students who participate in such a program. The WICHE program permits a student to orient his formal education to a practical work situation. It provides him with an opportunity to investigate a particular field — through both work and study — without commitment to a full curriculum of studies.

In addition to academic credit, the student is paid for his summer's work, and he is under no obligation to follow the program with additional courses. Nor are unusual prerequisites required.

The participating universities and colleges also gain from the program. Through it, schools obtain first-hand knowledge of problems in the field which helps them to plan more adequate academic courses.

Significance for Corrections

The WICHE program cannot be evaluated solely on the basis of its many pedagogical merits. It has indeed influenced the thinking of many university educators in the West, and it has affected the evolution of the Oregon, USC, and VISTA programs described elsewhere in this report. The WICHE program can stand on its more direct merits, however.

1. It has served as an effective mechanism for recruiting talent into mental health fields. By attracting students fairly early in their academic career and by providing an experience in the "real" world, it enables students to develop and test ideas of the suitability of a mental health career. Very few programs offer any kind of similar opportunity for vocational experience. The absence of alternatives to the WICHE kind of experience gives the mental health field a rare edge in the increasingly competitive search for academic talents.

2. Unlike some other kinds of experience-oriented programs, the WICHE experience is organized in such a way that there is virtually no disruption of ongoing academic program. The student is not required to withdraw from his ordinary university program, as he is in VISTA or Peace Corps training. Furthermore, by utilizing the academic "free time" of the summer, the student is not asked to pay for his vocational experience by an extension of his education beyond the four years expected of the rest of the undergraduate population.

3. The WICHE program is educationally efficient in that it:

. . . extends the recruitment of students over a great number of colleges and universities. Thus, students from smaller institutions, which could not develop relatively specialized courses in areas relevant to mental health, have a chance to obtain an academic experience otherwise not available to them.

. . . provides a mechanism for pooling the always limited resources of the various colleges and universities of the region. Course work and experiences can be offered that are beyond the capabilities of the individual institutions. A useful byproduct of this process has been the beginning of cross-institutional discussions concerning more effective ways of training manpower.

4. The WICHE program is organized so that it meshes with the network of degree requirements of the individual, in that academic credit is given for course work taken.

If there are limitations to the WICHE program, most are the result of options and decisions made to strengthen the program in one direction, while weakening it in another. For example, although the summer experience meshes with the formal degree requirements of most colleges by providing academic credit, it is not meshed with the content of an overall academic program. For the student, the WICHE experience is academically separate and encapsulated. It is not organized in such a way that the summer work flows neatly out of earlier academic work and is an important prior condition to something that happens later on the campus. On the other hand, provision of this kind of meshing would require enormous financial and political resources, since it would require coordination across a number of universities, agencies, and even state governments.

Chapter 6. SPECIALTY TRAINING MODELS

This chapter deals with training methods designed to meet the special needs of personnel going into programs which call for understanding and skills that are infrequently learned in the normal course of education. Work in the various antipoverty programs calls for such understanding and skills in abundance. So does work with juvenile delinquents.

VISTA Training Programs

On the total spectrum of antipoverty programs, VISTA (Volunteers in Service to America) occupies a rather inconspicuous place. Yet the need to train workers for VISTA has produced some of the most stimulating models of university education.

After initial selection, the Volunteers are assigned to a university for six weeks of training prior to work in one of the poverty programs. The nature of the work demands made on the Volunteers has forced the university trainers to create programs that prepare them for the kinds of situations they will encounter in assignment to a rural area, a small city, an urban ghetto, an Indian reservation, or a migrant labor camp.

Here is a clear statement of the purpose of one of these programs.

> The primary purpose of VISTA preparation is to provide highly qualified Volunteers to work in selected agencies and/or projects intended to assist low-income people, wherever they may be, in moving out of poverty into the mainstream of the socio-economic aspects of the community. Assumptions leading to this general purpose and essential to the subsequent development of the preparation program are these:
>
> 1. The attitudes and understandings of Volunteers toward self, people in poverty, and agencies involved in poverty programs will have to be and can be altered.
> 2. Basic to the foregoing is an understanding of the problem of human alienation wherein people in poverty have not participated in the socio-economic mainstream of the community in ways which society rewards, and further, they are not likely to succeed in their present situation by any acceptable standards.
> 3. Volunteers can develop, in operational terms, the belief that there is a place in the mainstream for the individuals with whom they will be working and that the vast majority of these individuals can learn and will want to perform remunerative work skills, enabling them to make a contribution to themselves and to society.
> 4. Volunteers can, through working with the poor, realize tremendous personal satisfactions.[1]

One distinctive aspect of VISTA training is the description of the desired end product. The Volunteer is actively and directly involved in working with the poor. He is assigned to a sponsoring agency, and it is his task to function within the structure of that sponsor. He should know, and use if needed, the various means of appeal and/or reconsideration available to him. He acts on behalf of the poor with thought, planning, consideration, empathy, and encouragement. He lives among the poor. He helps them meet their needs as seen by them; and, without imposing his desires, he points out new or different ways of doing things.

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[1] The material quoted here and summarized in the following paragraphs is drawn from unpublished mimeographed material produced by the VISTA Training Center at the University of Oregon, Eugene, Ore., 1967.

At the University of Oregon the schedule calls for two weeks at the Training Center and four weeks at a project site. Variations occur from time to time, depending on the complexity of the project assignment and the progress of the trainee.

The instruction schedule at Oregon operates Monday through Saturday, 9:00 to 12:00 and 1:30 to 5:00, and on Sundays depending on what seems appropriate at the time. In reality, the daily schedule operates from dawn till dark. An hour between breakfast and scheduled activities may be used for reading or other preparation for the day's activities. Similarly, if the schedule ends at 4:00, advantage is taken of this opportunity to do unscheduled tasks. And evening seminars are scheduled both at the Training Center and on the job.

As might be expected, the VISTA training programs have used a number of different kinds of training devices. In addition to the traditional lecture format, the program at the University of Oregon uses on-the-job training and small seminars. After two weeks of a campus-based program, those trainees who are ready for on-the-job training are assigned to projects to which they may ultimately be sent as VISTA Volunteers. There a field training officer, a project sponsor, and a regional program officer develop a series of training experiences for the Volunteers. Normally, the on-the-job program lasts from two to four weeks.

University of Oregon seminars were based on the following rationale, which was adapted from the guide prepared by the University of Maryland.

> Seminars are intended to integrate learning experiences, both formal and informal. To accomplish this, they are concerned with:
>
> 1. Providing for free discussion of the content presentations of the training cycle.
> 2. Providing opportunity to discuss, question, and formulate data and opinions about areas not covered in content presentations but deemed relevant to work with the poor and the problems of poverty.
> 3. Stimulating the trainee in the consideration of issues and their implications, including an understanding of the significance of the issue in relation to poverty, and the development of a personal position regarding the issue.
> 4. Providing the trainee an opportunity to engage in discussion so that he will develop ability to present his point of view regardless of acceptance or rejection, and willingness to listen to the opinions of others in the seminar and to discuss different views.
> 5. Encouraging readiness to:
>   a. Look at himself and the attitudes he has; to clarify these attitudes; and how these attitudes will support or make more difficult his work with the poor.
>   b. Talk about facts and feelings which are generally considered as not very comfortable, or not polite, and those which are usually considered of such delicacy as not to be raised.

   c. Look at the functioning and behavior of self and of peers and to look in a critical and constructive manner without becoming destructive or hostile.

6. Generally setting out to talk of specifics in the training experience and to help the trainees learn generic principles which can guide work.
7. Discussing the role of the VISTA Volunteer, including: the problems of a Volunteer in a new role of acceptance by the poor, by agencies, and their staffs; the expectations of sponsors and the national poverty program; the discretion required in personal and public life.
8. Developing clarity about the concept of living among the poor, dealing in principles as well as specifics with the opportunities created by this. Much of the training deals with functioning in existing social structures whereas many opportunities for the Volunteer may exist in the so-called "off hours," living in the neighborhood.

Significance for Corrections

Perhaps one of the greatest contributions of the VISTA training lies in its organization around a special and specific training need. This introduces something unusual into the educational scene: a criterion by which the success of the program can be gauged. The traditional goal of creating a "liberally educated man" is so vague in behavioral terms that it is virtually impossible to demonstrate that one or another kind of curriculum produces a better education. In the VISTA program there has been a constant need to re-assess the nature of the training and adapt it to prepare the Volunteers more adequately. The focus of the program on the actual performance of students in the field introduces a whole new set of mechanisms for preparing and evaluating an educational program. In this case, the educator does not need to rely solely on some rational and idealized conception of what the trainee perhaps should look like.

The special training focus has been coupled with a number of new kinds of training procedures. The University of Oregon has experimented with the use of closed-circuit television and video tapes to provide feedback to trainee and discussion groups of actual performance in such roles as counselor or teacher. The University of Colorado has built its program "in the field." Virtually all of the training, even the academic components, is centered in a small and isolated community, much like those where the Volunteers will work with migrants, many miles from the university.[2]

The particular focus of the VISTA program creates an unusually successful setting for multidisciplinary cooperation. The problems of rural poverty to be encountered by many of the Volunteers demand knowledge from such fields as education, sociology, psychology, social work, anthropology, political science, and economics, among others.

There are, to be sure, some limits to VISTA as a general model of training. For many other kinds of training, VISTA's allotted six weeks is too short a time. Furthermore, the VISTA training units within the various universities have been, quite deliberately, set up outside the academic structure of the institution. This means that the program itself does not fit into the degree-granting structure or the all-important academic departments. Most important, perhaps, is that, having been placed outside the rest of the university, the training unit itself vanishes when the federal grant ceases. While this is a sensible step if it can be presumed that at the same time the VISTA program itself will cease, nonetheless it would be regrettable if the expertise and methods developed in VISTA training were not transferred in some way to other kinds of educational and training programs.

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[2] See Howard Higman, Robert Hunter, and W. T. Adams, *The Monte Vista Story*, Institute of Behavioral Science, Bureau of Sociological Research (Boulder, Colo.: University of Colorado, 1965).

Youth Opportunity Center Specialist Training Program
University of Southern California

A distinctive training model which has emerged from the anti-poverty program was an institute developed at the University of Southern California to train workers for the Youth Opportunity Centers supported by the U.S. Department of Labor. Building upon the type of program developed earlier at the University of Colorado,[3] this unit developed a set of basic assumptions that mark the program as clearly different from the concept of education typical of the university degree-granting programs. These assumptions are:

1. Training of anti-poverty workers should take place in a poverty area.
2. Faculty for anti-poverty training programs should include poverty specialists as well as those schooled in the basic social sciences.
3. Residents of poverty areas should be included on the faculty of such training programs as "co-teachers" or "basic instructors."
4. The format for the training should be informal and flexible so as to facilitate the maximum involvement of the trainees with the faculty and the representatives of poverty areas.
5. The training should induce "cultural shock"; that is, professional workers should undergo an emotional experience which would sensitize them to the problems, frustrations, fears, apprehensions, and aspirations of persons who may come from different social strata than their own.

The trainees in the program were managers, supervisors, and counselors from the State Department of Employment. Since it was believed that the most effective training occurs when all levels of an organization go through the same kind of training when new roles and tasks are being defined by the organization, the trainee group contained a mixture of individuals representing administrative and service levels of the organization.

The actual program lasted only two weeks. Its objectives were an exchange of information about the relationship of minority group status, of inadequate education, and of delinquent background to poverty and youth unemployment.

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[3] See Howard Higman, "Colorado Training Programs" in *Targets for In-Service Training* (Washington: Joint Commission on Correctional Manpower and Training, 1968), pp. 29-35.

Much was made in this program of the need for the trainees to examine the nature of the professional-client relationship and to ask themselves not so much what could be done *for* the client, but what could be done *with* the counselee. This gave great emphasis to the development of feedback cycles.

> There was continuous stress on the need for professionals working with the poor to evolve immediate feedback cycles so that two important things might be quickly ascertained. The first relates to feedback in order to find out if that which the professional is communicating is being "received" by the counselee in the same form as it was intended. The second deals with the need to obtain feedback at regular intervals so that the counselor can learn if his actions are perceived by the counselee as having any particular relevance in his life as he understands it to be.
>
> The evolvement of these feedback cycles between the professional and the person being helped is imperative if there is to be made any real headway in the improvement of services and relationships with low-income groups. The life experiences of the middle-class professional and the lower-class client are generally so disparate that there is little or no basis for truly effective communication between the two. Serious errors have been made and will continue to be made by well-intentioned professionals working with the poor simply because they do not fully understand the importance of the differences between these life experiences. All too often the middle-class professional attempts to apply middle-class sanctions or hold out middle-class carrots when these have no real meaning to the poor at all.[4]

Consistent with the assumption that the program should be located in a poverty area, the Watts area of Los Angeles was selected as the site. Watts, which is a demographic area within the city of Los Angeles, is characterized by: a predominantly Negro population and extremely high population density; high unemployment; higher than city-wide averages for crime, delinquency, and drug addiction; and depressed physical surroundings. The youth of the area reflect characteristically high dropout tendencies and the generally low employment potential usually found in such areas. In general, the Watts community is representative of current plight of unemployed, undereducated, and poverty-stricken Negroes living within a metropolitan complex.

Selection of such a site gave training experience that would not be possible in more routine university training programs.

> The trainees were urged to make as many informal contacts in the neighborhood as possible, and time was allowed for this purpose. In small groups, the trainees were able to examine the community and talk with residents and merchants about what the Youth Opportunity Centers hope to accomplish. It was arranged for the trainees to eat lunch each day in the restaurants in the Watts area.

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[4] Rudy Sanfilippo and Robert Schasre, *Target: Youth Opportunity Center Specialists* (Los Angeles: University of Southern California Center for Training and Career Development, 1966), p. 9.

> Insofar as was practicable, every effort was made to see that the trainees "lived" the training experience. The constant exposure to those conditions which foster poverty, it was hoped, would cause the trainees to view the products of ghetto areas of the city in a different perspective when they came to the YOC's desperately seeking help.
>
> It was assumed that an increased understanding of the poor would assist the counselors in endeavoring to see that the way in which they respond to the poor might very well be evoking the defensiveness, defeatism, and the hostility which they commonly see in their offices.[5]

A more pungent statement of the possibilities of training on the scene is found elsewhere in the report of the program.

> The institute was designed in such a way so as to induce "cultural shock." That is, to expose the trainees to the realities of poverty in as vivid a fashion as possible. It was felt that a "gut-level" reaction to the problems, attributes, sensitivities, feelings, and aspirations of the poor was a basic prerequisite to ever being able to help them. The realities of poverty, it was felt, can only begin to be appreciated when trainees are exposed to "live" situations and concrete illustrations rather than academic abstractions.[6]

Another unique aspect of this program was its differentiation of a number of different kinds of faculty. These were:

1. Organizational representatives, drawn from community, government, and private organizations, who described new programs relevant to poverty programs in such wide-ranging areas as health, welfare, education, corrections, and community action. This material was included to familiarize trainees with other community service activities directed toward improving the conditions of the poor.
2. Counseling specialists, whose presentations dealt with the individual and group counseling techniques likely to be needed in working with disadvantaged youth. This material was included because counseling is the central technique used by the Department of Employment in assessing the needs of unemployed youth.
3. Social problems specialists, who provided information on the kinds of research being undertaken in various social problem fields, including intergroup relations, educational improvement attempts, youth training programs, and impediments to employment.
4. Poverty specialists, who were experts in the culture of poverty (and not merely familiar with the individual manifestations of the conditions which produce poverty). To be considered a poverty specialist, the individual had to have been involved in sustained firsthand personal relationships with the culture of poverty. The inclusion of such individuals provided both insight into the realities of poverty and an opportunity for trainees to realize how many of the pressing needs of the poor are not being met by existing agencies.

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[5] *Ibid.,* p. 11.

[6] *Ibid.,* p. 9.

5. "Basic instructors," who were drawn from the population of the poor and included mothers receiving Aid to Needy Children, adult unemployed men, young unwed mothers, male and female school dropouts, male and female high school graduates who could not find work, and male and female youths with delinquent histories. The function of these instructors (who were paid members of the staff) was to participate in interviews conducted by selected members of the professional faculty. These interviews were aimed at personalizing the implications of poverty.

Significance for Corrections

Several aspects of this institute merit close attention in an examination of various methods of bringing about effective university-agency collaboration in the field of corrections. The concept of training in a poverty area — *i.e.*, within the cultural setting of the client population — opens up a host of possibilities for new and different kinds of training experiences. The concept could be extended to much of what is considered academic activity, such as courses in criminology, social stratification, abnormal psychology, to mention but a few. Certainly there are academic precedents for such an extension; for example, archeological field work and field study in zoology or ornithology.

The functional differentiation of faculty leads to the use of individuals who would arbitrarily be excluded from most university training programs. Thus, many of the organizational representatives and the poverty specialists, who have much to contribute to this kind of training, might be rejected as not possessing the major academic credentials.

The specific inclusion of residents of the poverty area contributes greatly to the substance of the training program. It also raises the possibility of using such training slots as the entry point of an occupational training program for them in a human service area which would provide a way out of the poverty role.

In the evaluation of the institute, the trainees felt that they had learned much from the program. Many felt that they had gained an understanding of poverty which could never have been obtained from books or routine lectures.

However, there are some problems with this program as a model. The institute was placed in an ambiguous position, being neither part of the employment agency nor a permanent part of the university. Since it was not an ongoing part of the agency, there is concern, even among institute staff, about the long-range impact of the training program.

> The trainees were urged to constantly push upward their ideas so that top-level administration would have the best available information for policy formulation regarding the operation of the YOC's. All too often in formal organizations there is a tendency for information to flow mainly downward. A recurring theme of the institute was that all of the trainees, irrespective of their positions in the Departmental hierarchy, have a responsibility for pushing their ideas and concerns upward.[7]

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[7] *Ibid.*, p. 33.

Continually pushing ideas upward would stand a better chance if the training program could be designed on a long-range and continuing basis so that it followed the trainee into the work experience.

The nature of the program was such that it could have only limited impact on the structure of the university. In part this comes about because of an explicit concern with a different kind of a learning process than one finds in degree programs of universities. Staff observed that:

> The methodology for this institute was much more interactional than that ordinarily found in academic programs. We feel there is a real distinction between traditional educational programs and training. The former has as its main objective the long-range preparation of the student through general conceptual means. Training, conversely, is concerned with the more immediate use to which information is to be put. To the degree that training, as we use the term, is designed to assist the practitioner to perform his immediate job more effectively, there is more concern on motivational forces as instruments of learning. All of our professional faculty and basic instructors were oriented toward assisting the trainees to become more effective practitioners right now.[8]

This distinction is obviously an important one, and universities must certainly alter their methods if they are to train people to function in roles such as employment counselor in a Youth Opportunity Center. One question can be raised, however: Why is not this concept of training included within the many kinds of learning experiences provided by the university?

Perhaps it can be put in another way: How can this kind of a program be carried out in such a way that it becomes standard fare for the university? The institute staff at the University of Southern California was concerned with satisfying an immediate training need. To do so, an organizational model was selected which gave them the freedom needed to get the job done but also isolated the program from the university to some degree.

In attempts to follow their lead, perhaps consideration should be given to ways in which to achieve the objectives of this institute and at the same time secure more of an impact on the university itself. One aspect of this will be an extension of the time period of the training, in order that more experience might be obtained. Another aspect would be to provide a direct link between this initial training program and the professional credential-granting courses. This would serve the dual function of improving the professional status of the trainee and of strengthening the bargaining position of the institute within the university.

Delinquency Control Institute
University of Southern California

The Delinquency Control Institute at the University of Southern California, as first conceptualized in a committee report in 1945, was the response of a group of academicians and practitioners to an increased awareness and concern about youth crime in the Los Angeles area. The result of their work was a training program for juvenile police officers and a few probation and parole officers that would prepare them for dealing effectively with problems of delinquent youth. The Institute has provided educational opportunities to approximately 40 juvenile officers a year in the theories and techniques of juvenile delinquency control.

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[8] *Ibid.*

One of the distinctive aspects of the program is that much of its financial support over the years has come from private sources. These have included: the Automobile Club of Southern California, the Hollywood Turf Club Associated Charities, the Farmers Insurance Group, and the Sears-Roebuck Foundation.[9]

The Institute's program has always focused on the police officer and his understanding of the variety of roles he must fill in the society. Beginning 20 years ago with study of the individual offender and his problems, the program has come to consider the total community context in which both the juvenile and the police officer live and work. The Institute therefore is concerned with the ways in which the police and delinquency control in general relate to the other institutions in the community system.

The Institute has accepted responsibility for communicating theory and techniques to law enforcement personnel. In the light of this commitment, it has set up these goals:

...To enhance communication among persons concerned with delinquency
...To improve administrative, training, and communication skills
...To build knowledge through research
...To disseminate knowledge on the causes, prevention and control of delinquency more effectively
...To clarify within the mind of the individual his understanding of his professional role
...To develop understanding of intra-agency relationships
...To provide information and consultation to the community[10]

The 12-week training course involves the students totally, since they spend 40 hours of classroom time each week together. Students have varied academic backgrounds. In the spring of 1966, 19 members of the class were high school graduates. Ten had had some college work; of these, five had bachelor's degrees and two had had some graduate work.[11]

The first two weeks of the program consists of an introduction to the studies. The next three weeks' work concentrates on delinquency in a changing society; the next three weeks on delinquency control (problem-solving aspects); and the last three on prevention and action. Each area is investigated from several perspectives, such as police functions, police-community relations, analysis and survey techniques, investigation and interrogation, psychiatric interpretation, and communications workshops. Both theoretical and practical aspects are considered, as well as the tasks of the individual and the group. Teaching techniques include formal lectures, workshops, group discussions, field trips, and individual projects. The aim of the Institute is to achieve a balance among these methods.

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[9] Jo Wallach, *Proposal for Expanded Delinquency Control Institute* (Los Angeles: University of Southern California, 1966), p. 14.

[10] *Ibid.*, p. 4.

[11] Jo Wallach, *Summary Report on the 42nd Class of the Delinquency Control Institute* (Los Angeles: University of Southern California, 1966), p. 10.

The formal curriculum has its base in the School of Public Administration. Specialized lectures are designed to add to the knowledge of a juvenile officer as he functions in all phases of his job. Field trips illustrate the operation of the court system, juvenile rehabilitation institutions, and community resources for juveniles. Each student is required to complete an individual project; for example, the formulation of a proposal for dealing with one aspect of juvenile problems in the student's own community, including the design and plan for implementation of the proposal.

A training technique which is highly valued by the students is the use of "basic instructors." These teenagers, who have been involved in police, probation, and/or parole agencies, are interviewed by a faculty member skilled in interviewing techniques. From listening to their comments, the students come much closer to understanding the image of police held by troublesome youth.

Faculty for the Institute are drawn from various academic departments and from non-university personnel from a variety of backgrounds who have expertise in the police field and/or ability to identify the special problems of the juvenile officer. Guest lecturers come from social agencies and from community programs dealing with juveniles.

Significance for Corrections

The Institute has several aspects of special significance for collaborative efforts by universities and the correctional field. For one thing, it demonstrates the possibility of using local funds, rather than federal grants, to develop at least some of the needed training programs. Operation of this program over a period of more than 20 years probably would not have been possible under federal sponsorship, in view of the relatively temporary, if not capricious, quality of federal support for training.

Second, the program demonstrates the possibility that law enforcement training (and presumably training for corrections) can be a legitimate part of university functioning. However, in common with other institutes, this program faces the problem of remaining at the periphery of the university and not providing any linking mechanism which enables an interested trainee to move from the institute to the central university program.

The New Careers Model

Out of the wider poverty program has emerged another model for training of great significance for correctional training — the New Careers program. As an anti-poverty measure, the New Careers concept is premised on the observation that the present-day poor face a situation unlike that encountered by previous generations. The labor force of the United States has taken on a new shape. Declining demand for unskilled and semiskilled workers has resulted in a change in the position of the poor. Instead of receiving low pay for their labor, as was true earlier, many poor workers today are unable to find *any* employment. The young, particularly the black young, have been especially hard hit. Recent data suggest that in many ghetto areas, only 40 percent of the out-of-school youth in the 16-19 age group are employed.

The declining demand for unskilled work has been accompanied by a simultaneous increase in the employment of professional and technical workers, especially in the human services. One answer to the problem of poverty is to shift individuals from the sector of low demand (unskilled work) to a sector of high demand (professional work, including human services). However, entrance to most professional employment is only possible after long periods of formal education which include not only the four-year bachelor's degree but additional professional training at a university as well. And one of the important correlates of poverty is the absence of educational qualifications.

There is a choice of ways for "lifting" the poor into higher levels of education. One method is to try to expand the avenues for persons to move through the existing system. This is the basic purpose of programs to give poor children a "head start" in their entrance to school, programs to "enrich" the elementary school in poverty areas, programs to heighten the horizons of secondary experiences, and even a variety of methods to improve the chances for poor children to enter college.

But these attempts share one fault — each will take years to have any impact on a problem pressing on us *now*. Further, procedures aimed only at children cannot benefit immediately a very large population of adult poor.

Another method is to create new educational pathways, pathways which are linked to work roles: the New Careers proposal.[12] This proposal calls for a new set of steps whereby individuals can attain professional status. The educational steps are built by a sequence of work roles in which people start from relatively unskilled jobs in some human service field and progress by increasing the level of professional skill until full professional status is reached. Thus, a person may start as teacher aide and, with appropriate experience, training, and education, move up such steps as educational assistant, teacher apprentice (or intern), and finally to a certified teacher. Similar kinds of "ladders" have been proposed for such fields as social work, medicine, research, and corrections.

This model raises two issues of importance to the present discussion of correctional training. First, it calls for a radical change in the structure of higher education. Professional training traditionally has taken place predominantly within some type of cloister. The New Careers program requires that the trainers leave the cloister and come to the actual work scene to provide the necessary training experience. Second, the New Careers program requires a restructuring of agency work roles. Completely new work roles have to be created, and a shift is necessary in the distribution of work within the agency and the profession.

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[12] The rationale for the New Careers idea was stated by A. Pearl and F. Riessman in *New Careers for the Poor* (New York: Free Press, 1965) and more recently by Reissman and H. I. Popper in *Up from Poverty: New Career Ladders for Nonprofessionals* (New York: Harper, 1968).

Given the enormous changes required, it is not surprising that no full New Careers program has yet been implemented. As a general model, however, it merits further study by the correctional specialist. It may provide a general organizational umbrella under which fruitful kinds of joint university-agency training can be carried out. A New Careers center at a university could have many of the things which have been noted as essential. First of all, it would be linked to a set of degree-granting sequences, which will be necessary to provide the upward mobility implied in the New Careers concept. Moreover, it would be forced to break from the tradition of campus training to train within agency work settings. Finally, it would provide a graduated and integrated set of training experiences, later experiences building upon earlier ones, so that the student would achieve a sense of "going somewhere."

One of the first tests of the New Careers idea was carried out at the Center for Youth and Community Studies at Howard University in Washington, D. C. The goals of this program, which focused on a group of highly alienated youth, were:

> ...developing in socially deprived youth the necessary motivation, identity, values, and capabilities for maximal utilization of training for both holding down a job and beginning a potential career line in human and community service
>
> ...enabling these youth to learn the basic interpersonal skills, attitudes, and knowledge common to all human service occupations, so that they might work effectively in these areas
>
> ...developing flexibility of attitude, role, and viewpoint in these youth, so that they would not be artificially confined to a specific job but, with additional specialized training, could transfer easily from one type of human service position to another
>
> ...teaching specialized skills essential to at least one kind of human service
>
> ...developing meaningful jobs and career lines that are a permanent part of community institutions
>
> ...training and orienting professionals to work effectively with the aides.[13]

The program itself built in some additional considerations about the nature of alienated young people in contemporary society. Those young people who have grown up in the slums, particularly those who have failed repeatedly both at school and in the employment market, rarely perceive any possibility for ever succeeding in doing work which carries society's respect and in which they themselves can take pride. Their experiences offer them little reason to feel that they have any control over their own lives, or a voice in the decisions made about them. In almost any kind of training program they will find it hard to believe that they can, or should, take on responsibility, that ". . . they, rather than authorities, should make decisions; and that they, rather than luck, can influence their success or failure." [14] They are more easily discouraged by small failures than most other people because very few of the problems in their lives have alternative solutions if, indeed, they are capable of being solved at all.

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[13] *Training for New Careers: The Community Apprentice Program* developed by the Center for Youth and Community Studies, Howard University, Washington, D. C., for the President's Committee on Juvenile Delinquency and Youth Crime, June, 1965.

Therefore, it was felt that a primary emphasis of the training program should be to provide a mechanism for changing values and attitudes. A sense of belonging to a group with common problems, interests, and expectations; a sense of competence gained from meaningful work which is recognized and valued by both peers and supervisors; a feeling of making a useful contribution to the community, society, and one's personal future; gaining control over one's behavior through the mutual regulation and support of others; and the exercise of responsibility to people with and for whom one works — all these were values and attitudes to strive for.

Ability to make contact, to be concerned, and to be at ease with other people is essential for anyone who hopes to work successfully in human service. To know how to observe what is going on in human interrelationships and to understand the meaning of behavior within a particular context are other basic skills. In teaching these specific skills, enough theoretical background must be included so that the youth can both perform satisfactorily on the job and have a sound basis on which to advance professionally.

From the foregoing thoughts, the actual project was derived.

> . . . The Center for Youth and Community Studies of Howard University proposed that an exploratory demonstration project be attempted with the aim of developing training in the following three areas of human services: child care, recreation, and social research. This initial program attempted to focus on: (1) the receptivity of the community for such a program, (2) the orientation, training, and supervisory needs of such a program, (3) the ability of disadvantaged and deprived youth to be trained and function in these new careers, and (4) the potential of such a program for the selection and development of leadership indigenous to the deprived community.
>
> It was proposed that ten young people between the ages of 16 and 21 who resided in the Second Police Precinct of Washington, D. C., (an area consistently high on various indices of social disorganization) would be recruited for training. The program itself was to be based at the Baker's Dozen Community Health Center of Howard University's Center for Youth and Community Studies. Four of the youth would be trained to function in the recreation program of Baker's Dozen. They were to provide leadership to small groups of neighborhood school-age youngsters, organizing sports, supervising trips to local points of interest, and

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[14] *Ibid.*, p. 5.

guiding other recreational-educational activities. Additionally, they were to have the responsibility for scheduling, record-keeping, and otherwise maintaining control over a group program.[15]

Significance for Corrections

The New Careers strategy is of fundamental importance to manpower planning in the field of corrections. It provides a basic model around which a comprehensive scheme of training, involving both campus and field experiences might be developed. Such a model would:

- Produce through career "ladders" or "routes," a set of procedures for linking education at precollege, undergraduate, and graduate levels into one overall program.
- Commit this education firmly to the task of preparation of human service manpower; that is, a program oriented to the training for New Careers is by definition vocational in nature.
- Become a mechanism for training of both the staff and the clientele of the corrections system, providing new avenues of upward mobility for both.
- Provide more flexibility for lateral movement into corrections from other human service occupations.
- Commit the corrections system to the solution of a wider set of problems, such as poverty and racism, which impinge on the lives of correctional clientele.

A New Careers program is not easy to create. Some of the difficulties include:

. . . committing the higher education system to the task of educating individuals at the lower career levels who do not meet current academic standards for university entrance.

. . . developing an explicit statement of differential occupational skill levels around which the notion of academic "ladders" or "routes" can be developed.

. . . obtaining the support of agencies in the creation of career ladders. One of the problems of many so-called New Careers programs is that they create only the entrance level positions, such as social work aides, but are not able to develop the step-by-step career ladders upon which the idea of New Careers is based.

. . . obtaining the sanction of the relevant professional groups for the lower-level positions of the career ladders. Many professional groups resist the creation of what appear to be "substandard" professionals.

. . . building up a new set of credentialing mechanisms which link a given level of career performance with a parallel level of academic experience.

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[15] *Ibid.*, p. 73. Further information on the operation of the New Careers programs at Howard University is given in the following section. For a related development within corrections, see *Offenders as a Correctional Manpower Resource* (Washington: Joint Commission on Correctional Manpower and Training, 1968).

Training Centers of the Office of Juvenile Delinquency and Youth Development

The importance of university involvement in training for correctional agencies has not been ignored in the spectrum of correctional activities sponsored by the federal government. Of the many attempts to stimulate greater university involvement, the Training Center concept developed by the Office of Juvenile Delinquency and Youth Development (in the U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare) stands out, both because of its altogether splendid vision of what universities might offer and because the program has been a spectacular failure.

The birth of these training centers came with the quite revolutionary thinking that followed the establishment of the Office with the enactment of the Juvenile Delinquency Control Act of 1961. There were two major divisions in the organizational structure: one charged with the development of large scale "comprehensive" demonstration programs, the other responsible for developing training programs. Since much of the thinking of what should go into the training units was, in fact, influenced by the activities of the demonstration unit, the content of the demonstration programs must be reviewed briefly.

The original "comprehensive" community demonstration program was an attempt to encourage a bold and innovative approach to delinquency and related youth problems. The program was premised on the assumptions that: (a) many of these problems are a direct outgrowth of a way of life, especially in the cities (as evidenced by the high incidence of misbehavior in ghettos, for example), and (b) institutions and agencies within the cities are not organized effectively to deal with such problems. The demonstration programs undertook both to change the perception of what delinquency is and to organize new methods for counteracting or preventing it.

Immediately this created a great need for training programs, with the result that the training centers came to occupy a central position in the overall strategy of the Office. Not only did the universities possess the intellectual and training resources needed for traditional programs, but in this case they also contained the individuals most receptive and sympathetic to the essentially radical ideas of the Office. In turn, it was an explicit hope of the agency to create a greater involvement of the university in the pressing problems of communities.

Accordingly, in late 1961 and early 1962 the Office approached a number of universities with a request for plans for the establishment of training centers which it might fund. The centers were to be interdisciplinary in nature and were to provide a variety of short-term training programs. In order to assure the maximum possibility of carry-over of the Center after the lifetime of the federal grant, full support for the program had to be assured by university administrators. It was the explicit intent of the granting agency that the Center become an autonomous entity within the university structure, independent of established departments or professional schools.

The Office of Juvenile Delinquency founded 13 centers in all. Although their programs were diverse, the following abstracts of the activities of three centers, based on summary reports prepared for the Office, give some idea of the scope of training involvements undertaken.

Training Program of the Howard University Center for Youth and Community Studies

The purpose of this program was to develop further an interdisciplinary training center program for personnel working with problems of youth and juvenile delinquency. Specific emphasis was placed on the experimental training of disadvantaged youth for nonprofessional roles in human services and the development of curriculum for these programs, in line with the New Careers concept.

Out-of-school, out-of-work youth were trained as aides in a number of areas, including recreation, child care, social research, health, and education. Following a core program of general training and specialized training in the service area, the youth were permanently placed in various public and private organizations and agencies in Washington, D. C. Orientation to the use of aides was provided to many administrators and supervisors.

As an example of the aide program, 50 youth were trained to serve as school aides in elementary school classrooms in the Washington public school system. This represents not only the first aide program in the school system which utilized youth between the ages of 17 and 21 but also the only program with a systematic training component which guaranteed the aides at least one year's employment in the school system. In another program, 30 disadvantaged young people — half of them between the ages of 17 and 21 and the other half betwen 21 and 30 — were trained to become eligible for positions as counselors in the various institutions for dependent and delinquent children maintained by the District of Columbia Department of Public Welfare. A conference on "New Careers: Ways out of Poverty for Disadvantaged Youth" was held in April 1964, for the purpose of exchanging information and stimulating pertinent questions for further exploration and program development in the use of nonprofessional aides.

Other activities of the Center included a series of programs focusing on group counseling in a variety of settings: schools, community mental health, courts and correctional agencies, and probation. These programs were designed to familiarize the trainees with theoretical principles related to conduct of counseling groups and the establishment of group programs, and to test and develop training materials.

During the final project year, the Center conducted an intensive evaluation of the aide population already trained. An assessment was made of the social, employment, and educational history of each aide since training, with emphasis being placed on his income, promotions, level of employment, job content, attitude toward employment, educational and vocational aspirations, and social conduct in the community.

Additionally, a set of interdisciplinary curriculum materials was developed for training lawyers and related professionals in the juvenile court process. Some of the main topics to be covered in these materials were: the youthful offender; police and the apprehension of youthful offenders; and the history, origins, and philosophy of the juvenile court.

Among the manuals and reports from the data collected in the training programs were: *Training for Community Mental Health Aides; Manual of Training of Neighborhood Workers; Report on Seminar for Youth Decision-Makers; Readings in Group Counseling with Adolescents;* and *Group Counseling Manual.*

University of Hawaii Training Center in Juvenile Delinquency and Youth Development

The purposes of the Hawaii Center were: to identify training needs in the state; to explore the feasibility of developing programs, projects, and curricula to meet these needs; and to effect a liaison between the Center and all public and private agencies in the state that render services to youth.

Activities of the Center included:

1. Assistance to the Committee on Institutions and Social Services of the State House of Representatives in an assessment of the existing youth correctional program in Hawaii and in the formulation of a well-articulated system to remedy existing defects in both program and organization. A reevaluation of the correctional program was conducted during the final grant year of the Center, and an institute and a series of short-term programs were held for correctional and related personnel.
2. A statewide work conference on "Juvenile Delinquency: Manpower, Training and Research Needs," with assistance provided to the participants in implementing the recommendations.
3. Regular meetings with agency administrators and supervisors to assist them in program development, implementation, and evaluation.
4. Help to the university in developing a study committee on the relations of interdisciplinary centers to the various university departments and cooperation with faculty members in developing new courses in delinquency and in laying the groundwork for a community college.
5. Development of curriculum materials both for agency personnel and for nonprofessional workers in youth service agencies and corrections. Police training programs were planned and a follow-up study of manpower needs developed for introduction into regular university departments.

University of Minnesota Training Center for Delinquency Prevention and Control

The purposes of the Minnesota Center were: to focus attention within the university on the needs of the city; to serve as a channel through which various resources of the university could be made available to the community in the various kinds of intervention required; to feed back to the appropriate university departments curriculum materials and insights that could contribute to the control of delinquency and related social problems; to serve as the center for information for corrections and related social programs in the Upper Midwest; and to pioneer new training programs for key correctional personnel in the region.

Approximately 1,900 persons enrolled in the various training programs conducted by the Center, including teachers, correctional personnel, students, school counselors, and administrators of juvenile institutions. These training programs included:

1. Three new courses for undergraduates interested in the field of delinquency control in conjunction with the Sociology Department: Law and the Legal System for Correction and Social Workers; Institutional Treatment of Juvenile Delinquents — Problems and Practices; and Proseminar in Delinquency Control and Treatment.
2. An institute for teachers of Indian children. Designed to present information concerning Indian culture, the program was based on the assumption that knowing more about the Indian — his attitudes, values, problems, and strengths — would enable teachers to educate their Indian pupils more effectively.
3. A workshop for human service workers from the public and private social institutions involved in the city antipoverty program. The workshop was designed to give the workers an opportunity to get together to review the range of new opportunities available under the recently established program, and to provide a forum for exchanging ideas and observations on the impact, direction, and consequences of the antipoverty effort.
4. A curriculum demonstration project during the summer of 1964 for students randomly nominated by the school faculty, ranging from pre-kindergarten to fourth grade. The objectives of the project ranged from increasing vocabulary and raising the level of concept development to improving self-concept and extending and broadening interests. The objectives for curriculum development were to adjust the curriculum and procedures to meet the needs, levels, and characteristics of the learners in line with success experiences and maximum growth for each child and to experiment with less generally used procedures.
5. A seminar for residents of the target and buffer areas of the Minneapolis Youth Development Project hired to serve as the community development staff. The seminar was established for the purpose of orienting both these residents and the existing agency staff to the newly created subprofessional role and its implications for community organization.

Curriculum materials developed by the project included: *Indians in Literature—A Selected Annotated Bibliography for Children; Education and the Disadvantaged Child—A Book of Readings;* and *Curriculum Development Demonstration Project—Hall Elementary School.* In addition, ten tapes were produced for use in training teachers who work in slum schools.

Significance of the Centers for Corrections

Despite the good intentions of the Office of Juvenile Delinquency and the extensive federal funding, the concept of the Training Center was not successful. With the closing off of the grant from the Office, virtually all the centers ceased to function. A number of factors contributed to this failure.

Most fundamental, perhaps, was a strategic error built into the legislation itself, that the training program of the Center was by definition precluded from degree-granting activities. The core set of educational activities undertaken by universities is oriented to satisfying requirements leading toward bachelor's, master's, and doctor's degrees. Writing a program which did not permit *any* degree training (however modified or innovative) resulted in a basic structural weakness of the centers. They became stepchildren in the harsh and competitive political world of the university that leaves little hope for the weak and unprotected. Clearly suspect because of their nondegree function, the centers were vulnerable to charges of "lowering standards" or performing tasks "inappropriate for the university," to which no suitable reply could be given. The error was a fatal one. Without a degree-granting function, there were few acceptable grounds on which the centers might have negotiated their continued existence.

The kinds of activities of the Center, both in social action and in training, were diametrically opposed to existing expectations of research and teaching which govern the flow of academic rewards. Whatever personal stimulation and satisfaction the individual faculty member might find in either the action or the training role, he would not be rewarded by the university. A training program which does not provide outlets whereby its staff can engage in "appropriate" university activities cannot survive.

The university as an institution felt threatened by the action and training activities of the centers. Heated reactions to social action laid bare the essentially conservative nature of the university. Moreover, the centers' involvement in such activities as housing or unemployment tended to upset existing systems of power in the ghettos, bringing an inevitable, and at times quite emotional, reaction from established elites.

The timid response of the universities to such pressures provides a valuable lesson. However stoutly the university may resist attempts by outside agents to alter basic functions of the institution, it is apparently willing to cave in to such pressures when the issue concerns an alien element like the Training Center which has been imposed on the university by another outside agent, the federal government.

The idea of interdisciplinary efforts might appear reasonable and sensible to those outside the university, but the notion is hazardous. Established departments are not likely to favor interdisciplinary work, especially if it involves social action; to them this represents a watering down of the principles laid down by the discipline, if not a blatant misuse of knowledge. More importantly, the basic organizational unit of the university is the subject-centered department. However much innovation may require moving outside existing departments, to do so nonetheless both removes the program from the organizational units which possess the basic power in university decision-making and makes it defenseless against retaliatory measures by the departments. Given the organizational structure of the university, an alternative procedure might be to locate such a program within an existing unit which is actually or potentially interdisciplinary in nature, such as a school of education or social work. One must quickly add that such schools also tend to resist innovation, but they may provide the necessary bureaucratic protection for interdisciplinary efforts, if such are desired.

WICHE Off-Campus Faculty Placement Programs

Three kinds of ideas were fused in the creation of the off-campus placement programs implemented by the Western Interstate Commission for Higher Education (WICHE). These ideas were:

1. Many of the pressing training needs are such that they can be dealt with only at the work site, not on the university campus.
2. Correctional institutions in geographically remote areas pose special problems for the planning of training programs.
3. Many of the smaller and more isolated states might be able to carry out more effective training by cooperation with other states in the West.

One answer to these problems, it was believed, was to bring the university to the correctional institution. Three methods were used.[16]

The Faculty Traveling Team

For those areas in the West which are geographically isolated and have few educational and correctional facilities, the traveling team was used. A small group of experts in various disciplines moved through the state, conducting seminars, providing consultation, stimulating continuing education, and developing local leadership for future programs. The demonstration team visited Alaska in the summer of 1964.

Summer Placement for Faculty

Because geographically isolated correctional institutions in the West had not generally established effective liaison with colleges and universities, little or no sharing of resources had developed. If the situation were to persist, these institutions would continue to experience chronic problems of understaffing, limited research, and ineffective communications.

To help solve these problems, WICHE planned an eight-week summer work-study program for faculty members. At isolated correctional institutions the university personnel performed research, assisted in staff development, and provided consultation. Through this exposure of faculty to the practice field, university curriculum content was also enhanced.

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[16] See William T. Adams and Frank Dell'Apa, *Demonstration Programs in Education for Work in Juvenile Corrections* (Boulder, Colo.: Western Insterstate Commission for Higher Education, 1966).

Faculty placements were made in the summer of 1964 at the Nevada Girls Training Center and the Wyoming Industrial Institute for Boys. In the summer of 1965, faculty members were placed at the Alaska Youth Conservation Camp, the Colorado Youth Services Division (State Department of Institutions), the Montana State Vocational School for Girls, the New Mexico Boys' School, and the Wyoming Girls' School.

Continuing Education Seminar

One major problem for specialized manpower is to keep abreast of the current knowledge and skills of the field. Through continuation education seminars for men and women employed in corrections, several goals were attained: (1) presentation of teaching materials for those currently employed; (2) stimulation of faculty through exposure to practitioners in clinical settings; (3) production of curricula for future use by other groups in the region; and (4) recruitment of students.

Seminars were held at the University of New Mexico, the University of Nevada, Oregon College of Education, Southern Colorado State College, the University of Utah, and the University of Wyoming. The content was interdisciplinary in nature, drawing mainly from the behavioral sciences. Appropriate use was made of nearby correctional institutions, probation and parole agencies, courts, and community delinquency prevention centers.

Significance for Corrections

Perhaps the major contribution of the WICHE off-campus faculty placement programs consists of its examination of the following principles.

1. Effective training in the field of corrections will result only if the universities recognize the need to diversify their training and education so that some of the training is organized at the work site. A number of strong pedagogical arguments can be developed to support such a position. For one, the constant exposure of the instructor to the reality of the world of his students permits him to select educational materials and experiences which fit the situation of the student. From the viewpoint of the student, the possibility of learning by doing resolves immediately the problem of the relevance of the training experience (not always in the desired direction, however).

2. Geographically remote institutions can be provided with on-site training programs at relatively low cost. It was not difficult to recruit instructional staff to participate in these programs (small wonder, considering the potential delights of the wilds of Alaska or the beaches of Hawaii).

3. The cooperative pooling of talent in a region increases the quality of program in any one state. Many of the smaller states, especially, have relatively limited training resources, since their higher education institutions are few in number and small in size. Moreover in such situations, the available faculty members are in danger of being "overexposed" after repeated appearances in training and conference sessions.

Part III: Directions for Cooperative Development of Corrections and Education

Chapter 7. TACTICAL AND STRATEGIC CONSIDERATIONS

Neither higher education nor corrections is a static enterprise. Each has felt — and has attempted, however feebly, to respond to — the variety of stresses imposed on it by contemporary life. Earlier chapters have sketched a number of attempts to alter the nature of higher education, usually in ways that would make the university more open or relevant to appropriate preparation for human service careers in general and the field of corrections in particular. These attempts provide some lessons about the tactics of bringing change to the university.

1. At the onset, concern must be given to the problem of academic respectability. Efforts to involve the university in social action training programs will almost certainly raise concerns as to whether the program "falls outside the purposes of the university," "lowers academic standards," or "dilutes educational content." While some of the earlier models demonstrate that problems of respectability can be solved, nonetheless the permanence of any program may depend on its ability to overcome such criticism. Ultimately, the strongest argument to be advanced in support of such efforts is pedagogical; that is, earning respect within the university may depend on demonstrating that the program does a better job of educating students.

2. Close attention must be given to the core activities of the university, and an attempt must be made to tie the training to such activities. Two of the most important are degree-related teaching and research. By and large, the major bureaucratic structures within the university will be built around these two functions. The danger of many innovative training programs, such as the training centers of the Office of Juvenile Delinquency or VISTA, is that they have been organized to fall almost entirely outside either the degree instruction or research sphere. Thus they have no permanent place and the departure of the grant monies means that the program vanishes from the campus. While the "outside" kinds of activities, such as short-term training, may be an integral part of the total program, consideration should be given to that kind of a plan which includes both research and degree-related instruction as well.

3. Some consideration similarly should be given to the core structures of the university, such as the departments and schools, in program planning. Power is the issue here, power in the sense of control over budgets, staff, and even courses.

The new school created at the University of Oregon, for example, represents one model whereby innovation is rendered more feasible by creating an autonomous unit within the university. While this unit can and does draw upon course offerings and staff from the more traditional liberal arts departments, it can also create its own courses manned by its own personnel where necessary.

An alternative, of course, is to locate an innovative program within an existing structure. In some instances, there are important advantages in having the program placed inside an already established unit. Schools of education, for example, can ease the pathway both into education programs at the elementary, secondary, and junior college levels and also into the credentialing system for the field of education. If training programs are being constructed around the New Careers concept, where new kinds of credentials must be developed, these pathways can become of fundamental importance.

4. In the strategy of creating change, some consideration needs to be given to balancing the influence of both "outside" and "inside" influences. Many have observed that much of the initial impetus for change comes from external influences, as illustrated by the comments of Kerr.

> Changes initiated from the outside, as in the development of the federal grant university... are especially easy to accomplish. The individual faculty member seeking something new has, in turn, often found his greatest encouragement and leverage coming from the outside; the individual scholar is the inventor, the outside agency the force for innovation.[1]

Kerr notes the importance of selecting the right kind of structure inside the university whereby the outside influence will have its greatest impact.

> Much change also takes place largely outside collective faculty purview, outside the "veto groups" of the academic community—in the new department or institute, the new project, the new campus. The institute, in particular, has been as much the vehicle of innovation in recent years as the department has been the vault of tradition. Change comes more through spawning the new than reforming the old.[2]

Jencks has been extremely pointed in his view of the limitations of internal mechanisms of change.

> ...On virtually every major university campus in America, there are professors who want to develop an interdisciplinary science program for non-scientists, start a small residential college where undergraduates will have a common curriculum and a chance to get to know a small group of faculty, or whatever. These ideas rarely get off the ground. Often they are vetoed by the rest of the faculty, or by one or another faculty committee. Even if an idea is accepted in principle, departments are not willing to release "their" members from conventional teaching duties to try something different. So the only way to break the lockstep is to get outside money to "pay off" the departments and allow them to hire temporary substitutes for those who are doing the unorthodox. Such money is extremely hard to get, especially when the majority of the faculty is unenthusiastic.

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[1] Clark Kerr, *The Uses of the University* (Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1963), p. 101.

[2] *Ibid.*, p. 102.

> The inadequacies of the curriculum are, I think, a direct reflection of this paralysis of faculty government. At most universities, the faculty is too big to do anything efficiently and too conservative to let individual faculty members decide things for themselves. The Byzantine irrelevance of faculty politics cannot help but be mirrored in the curriculum. Men cling to lectures, examinations, credit hours, prerequisites, and the like not because they are good for the students but because they provide an excellent framework for adjudicating the competing interests of individual professors and departments. What usually passes for curriculum "reform" usually serves a political rather than a pedagogic purpose.[3]

To this last comment, especially, we need to add a brief note of caution. While innovation may require outside pressure, it cannot endure without inside sponsorship. Academic politics is a treacherous and tangled maze, with a wide range of traps laid for outsiders who try to intervene in university affairs. Negotiation of innovation is unthinkable without sponsorship of inside academics who possess both the prestige and organizational skills necessary to move any program. However "Byzantine" faculty politics may be, Jencks is wrong to call it irrelevant. On most campuses, no change can or will take place to any significant degree without a successful negotiation through some faculty political process.

Some Considerations of Strategy

Cooperative efforts between corrections and higher education require more than an analysis of the tactics of bringing change to the university. It is essential that close attention be given the explication of the set of goals within which a strategy of cooperation can evolve. Some of these goals might be:

More effective academic preparation of professionals, i.e., the development of university degree programs which produce individuals who fit into human service careers generally and into corrections specifically.

At the undergraduate level, this will require:

1. An elaboration of the present limited career lines within correctional and other human service agencies so that there can be a fit between an undergraduate program and the career structure. Jobs must exist for persons at the B.A. level which mesh with the training and qualifications they have attained. In this development, changes within the agency structure are a clear prerequisite for cooperative educational development. The hiring organizations must face the issue that, for education to develop and become relevant, occupational reference points which do not now exist must be developed.
2. The development of vocationally oriented undergraduate programs which link up with the developed occupational structure. This will require not only the specification of the job reference

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[3] Christopher Jencks, "A New Breed of B.A.'s: Some Alternatives to Boredom and Unrest," *The New Republic,* CLIII (Oct. 23, 1965), 18-19.

points by the outside agencies, but also efforts by the university to analyze the skill requirements of the jobs and determine how training for these skills is to be provided by the university program.

At the graduate level, it will require a willingness on the part of the agencies to elaborate professional roles outside the social work model, since clearly the evidence is indicating that the graduate schools of social work cannot — and, more importantly, will not — satisfy the demand for graduate professionals. Once again, this change will require not simply the development of alternative programs within the universities in such areas as vocational rehabilitation or educational counseling but action on the part of the human service agencies which give these alternative programs full professional status. To be specific, a number of bureaucratic rules which give preference to the M.S.W. will have to be amended. This should be easy to do, since often there is little relationship between the training of the M.S.W. and the administrative roles where the preferential treatment exerts its most damaging effect.

Development of an elaborate New Careers program, which would provide occupational ladders (with a number of specific jobs arrayed in a linked and ascending order of skills and qualifications) which are explicitly linked to requisite educational and certification procedures inside the higher education establishment. Once again, collaboration is essential, since development of the occupational positions must be undertaken by the agencies, while higher education will of necessity at some point assume responsibility for the educational component.

Introduction of corrections material into supportive professional training. Most large public universities contain a number of professional schools to train individuals in areas that bear some actual or potential service relationship to corrections: education, law, criminology, recreation, business administration, medicine, and so on. One goal of cooperative development should be to provide corrections-relevant material and experiences in these professional training programs.

Improvement of current corrections and human service offerings to undergraduates in liberal arts programs. It is inconceivable that in the near future there will be a rejection of the typical liberal arts model of education for the undergraduate in the United States. Consequently, one goal of educational development is to provide, within the framework of student electives, an opportunity for undergraduates to study the correctional field, including actual field work experience.

Provision of mechanisms for involving higher education in pre-service and in-service training. A fundamental idea of any cooperative program is that higher education must take on a more external orientation — accepting the legitimacy of the idea that work and education can, and should, be linked together. In concrete terms this means that the higher education establishment must involve itself in the on-site pre-service and in-service training of staff within the agency setting. On the part of the agency, this will require a specification of those aspects of the work experience which are appropriate for a training program integrated into a higher education format. On the part of higher education, where perhaps this kind of program will cause greater trauma, there will have to evolve:

1. A commitment to training "on the scene," with a consistent break with the cloistered model of education, and
2. A development of whole new methods and procedures of education, since the lecture-unit-examination system within which campus education is carried out no longer will be appropriate.

Provision of joint agency and educational mechanisms for the recruitment of talent into the correctional field. Given the structure and orientation of the present undergraduate and graduate curricula, there are very few opportunities for students to examine tentatively and explore correctional or other human service careers. One desirable outcome of any evolving cooperative effort between corrections and the academic world would be the establishment of academic and field experiences for those individuals who are at an exploratory stage of professional development. Linked to the New Careers idea, the potential targets for recruitment would include not only undergraduate and graduate students currently enrolled in the university (although it should appeal to them, certainly), but also individuals outside the academic structure, such as unemployed black adolescents, prison inmates, or middle-aged housewives.

Development of mechanisms for producing citizenry that is educated regarding correctional issues. One of the inherent problems of corrections today is that the corrections process has become isolated from other kinds of community processes. In part, this is a natural product of the occupational and institutional specialization that occurs in a society undergoing rapid technological growth. It stems also from some inherent assumptions of the criminal law and correctional process, assumptions which serve to isolate the offender from the rest of society. One of the tasks of a program of cooperative educational growth is to contribute toward the creation of a citizenry which has some knowledge and understanding of the corrections process. This may take the form of adding material to present undergraduate and graduate curricula. It also might include community education programs in which personnel from education and correctional agencies share the tasks of preparation and execution.

Chapter 8. A RANGE OF FEASIBLE MODELS

In considering models that might best enable corrections and higher education to reach the goals set forth in the previous chapter, we should start with the model which appears likely to achieve the widest range of goals and then go on to other models which would cover a narrower range.

The Comprehensive Model: A School for Human Service

The widest range of goals could be met by the creation of a school for human service within a public university. The comprehensive program would include five basic components.

1. Undergraduate programs consisting of:
   ... a degree course in human service careers.
   ... courses of instruction based on field work experience.
   ... courses of instruction designed to serve the function of educating students about corrections and of recruiting students into correctional careers.
2. Graduate programs which would prepare individuals for careers in corrections-relevant professions or would provide corrections-relevant materials in supportive professional training programs.
3. An external training unit, which would carry out:
   ... in-service and pre-service training within human service agencies.
   ... community education programs in such human service areas as corrections.
4. A New Careers program which would serve as a guide for the integration of the external training and the university-centered educational experiences.
5. A research unit, which would provide:
   ... an organization within which the research interests of the faculty of the school could be carried out and encouraged. Given the orientation of the university to scholarship and research, the strength of this unit may be critical in the maintenance of academic respectability for the school.
   ... constant assessment and evaluation of the training programs of the school.

A number of practical problems arise with regard to the implementation of this model. For one, it calls for the establishment of new courses within the structure of course offerings of the university. Most universities have established a complex set of interlocking department and university curriculum committees which have erected formidable barriers for any rapid change in the curriculum. It is not uncommon for the process of introducing a new course to take two years *after* the details of the course have been written, in order to work through the various committees and to be published in the university bulletin or catalogue. Since it would obviously take some time to prepare a course purpose outline and syllabus, it can be seen that rapid introduction of new courses within the existing rules may be virtually impossible. Most universities have some mechanisms for more rapid movement which are available to those "inside" sponsorship.

A second problem arises from the even more complex decision process involved in establishing new degree programs. The process is analogous to that of introducing new courses, but the difficulties are intensified. In this instance it will be necessary to deal with an interlocking set of faculty and administrative committees, since the creation of a new degree usually requires the creation of a new administrative unit — explicitly so in the case of the proposed School for Human Service. Thus, the university not only must deal with the substantive issue of the development of some kind of educational content in the human service fields but also with the set of issues that arise with respect to administration and power when a new unit is being created. In particular, a School for Human Service would have to justify and clarify its domain of activity as separate (and legitimately separate) from, say, a school of social work or of education. When the proposed school is explicitly concerned with graduate education, the separateness may be hard to defend.

Once again the complexity of tasks involved in the initiation of a new school can be emphasized. For example, it may be that a set of steps which requires two or three years may have to be undertaken in order to create the new school, *at which time* — that is, once the school is authorized to give degrees — the staff of the school may approach the curriculum committees with specific proposals for course offerings within the school.

Into all these problems we must stir the obvious academic unpopularity of human service and vocationally oriented programs. The defenders of the liberal arts tradition — and they constitute a strong segment of any university community — will not hesitate to attack such proposals directly and will be expert in the use of committees to obstruct what they regard as dangerous ideas. It must be remembered too that the tenure, committee, and academic office structure operates to give greatest political power to older academics who have the greatest stake in the liberal arts tradition.

Alternatives to the Comprehensive Model

It can be assumed from the onset, then, that the creation of a School for Human Service (or something analogous) is not a real possibility in the immediate future for most universities. The question then becomes: What are the alternatives? What kinds of other models might be considered which permit the creation of an academic beachhead within the university, from which it is possible to move to more enduring changes? We can suggest here four such alternative models.

A New Careers Training Center

Given the weight of a growing body of federal legislation and developments within many universities, one alternative is to create a center around the New Careers concept. As a beachhead model, such a center offers a number of advantages of which two are paramount in the strategy of university change. First, the New Careers approach is inherently vocational, so that educational experiences are linked to work. Within the set of assumptions of New Careers is a set of ideas which require the gearing of learning to the work situation, ideas which are of equal potency for education at the undergraduate and graduate level and for the entry-level aide position. As such, this conception provides a mechanism for altering the current insulated method of academic education.

Second, the notion of occupational "ladders" or steps would compel a New Careers center to be concerned with education at the graduate, undergraduate, and lower levels. The educational comprehensiveness of the idea, if properly implemented, would lead to a comprehensive program of education and training.

The center itself could be organized in several different ways, depending on the present structure of the university and some assumptions about where it might be able to move in the future. Wherever it is located — within a department or a professional school, as a new interdisciplinary entity, or in a continuing education division — the program must have access to mechanisms for gaining academic credit, both at the undergraduate and graduate level, for its training programs.

If the center is created with federal funds, some attention must be given at the start to the question of continuation beyond the grant period. Thus the staff may elect initially to be located within a professional school rather than in a new interdisciplinary center, perhaps even with joint appointments (and shared funding of positions) in order to ease the later transition from "soft" (grant) to "hard" funding.

A Corrections Training Center

Another alternative is to create a center within the university devoted explicitly to the task of training persons in the correctional field. Such a center could be developed to provide: (1) short-term training, both in the field and on campus; and (2) degree-related training, at both graduate and undergraduate levels.

In this case, an interdisciplinary framework would be appropriate in order to permit the coordination of training across a wide number of fields. The short-term training of parole officers, for example, might deal with such topics as legal rights regarding revocation, educational needs of parolees, group counseling techniques in field settings, or other kinds of experiences which require movement across such disciplines as law, education, social work, sociology, psychology, or vocational rehabilitation, to name but a few.

From everything that has been said before, it should be clear that we are making much of the ability of any program to involve itself in degree programs. In this case, the enduring impact of the unit will depend on its ability to integrate itself into degree-oriented programs. This might be done within a two-step strategy:

1. As a start, provide funds and staff to expand course and field work offerings within the existing departmental and course structures.
2. Later, move into more direct involvement by expanding graduate and undergraduate degree programs, perhaps by creating a new administrative unit (such as a School for Human Service), with the corrections center providing funds and staff for the necessary planning and development.

Research should be part of any such corrections center. This will provide the opportunity for research activity necessary for the maintenance of academic reputations. In addition, careful research done on the impact of the training program can serve as a guide for further development.

Special Training Projects

Within an overall program of correctional training and development, room must be provided for various kinds of special training projects which do not necessarily contain the strategic plans of the programs discussed up to this point. A federal agency concerned with the expansion of correctional training and manpower might want to consider some of the following kinds of training.

In degree-connected areas:

1. Fellowships in existing social work, counseling, vocational rehabilitation, or other corrections-relevant professional programs to enable students to specialize in corrections.
2. Sponsorship of attempts to develop a new major or interdisciplinary specialization in corrections at either the undergraduate or the graduate level.
3. Support for work-study programs in the summer or during the regular academic year, especially programs which would make consistent attempts to integrate the off-campus activity with on-campus academic experiences.
4. Experiments which would bring the corrections system into more direct contact with campus experiences; for example, a course constructed around the use of various individuals from correctional agencies (including inmates) as "basic instructors" to expand the traditional classroom teaching of criminology or corrections.
5. Short-term summer seminars inside correctional agencies for

graduate students in established academic disciplines, especially their research aspects.

In non-degree areas:

1. Short-term pre-service training of individuals to move into entry-level aide positions in correctional agencies. Modeled on the VISTA and "basic instructor" plan, programs might be devised, for example, for parole officers (or parole officer aides in a New Careers program) to orient trainees to their jobs, the clientele, and the communities within which they will work.
2. A short-term seminar to introduce correctional administrators to the New Careers concept.
3. Joint on-campus and on-site seminars in the methods and procedures of evaluating and assessing the impact of programs.

Curriculum Development and Research

A final component of any manpower training and development program should provide for curriculum development and research. Within the wide range of training and educational endeavors outlined here, enormous needs for both curriculum materials and research become obvious. New graduate and undergraduate programs and the use of basic instructors require the development of a range of curriculum materials as well as curriculum decisions. Even without this, the rapid change within the correctional clientele (as these groups come to reflect the issues of blackness and youth, for example, that are causing such concern throughout the country) would require extensive curriculum development. Research will obviously be a necessary component of such curricular planning, so that these activities must be seen as complementary. One specific area where there perhaps should fold-over on one another is curriculum development in evaluation research, where concrete illustrations of assessment programs could be built into a program of research training.

Education for a More Effective Corrections

We have argued in these pages that much is at stake for the future of corrections in the evolution occurring in higher education. From what has been said, it is apparent that much of the important action takes place at the fringe of academia. As a consequence, many of the programs described here, and the proposals derived from them, have an appearance of academic nonrespectability. It is without a doubt true that the respectability problem is one of many factors that gives many university training programs a short lifetime.

Yet the issues raised at the fringes of academia are important. Corrections shares a stake in the problems that lie in the development of new training and credentialing mechanisms within higher education. In a world of rapid technological advance, a man's work is an increasing determinant of his identity. A consequent fact of modern life is that stable and meaningful work roles require movement through some educational track and process.

Existing educational models, especially the liberal arts model, cannot satisfy the requirements for trained and educated manpower for society generally and the field of corrections specifically. However important a liberal arts experience may be, and the importance is granted, the techniques of education derived from this model must be modified if we are to meet the complex demands of human service agencies, demands which span wide levels of competence and specificity of training tasks.

Two implications follow from this. One, alternative training and educational models must be developed; and two, we must carry out systematic experiments which carefully evaluate these alternatives. It would be sheer folly to continue the present practice of nonaccountable education, where virtually no systematic attempt is made to assess the extent to which an educational program reaches an explicit set of learning goals.

While it would be a mistake to fix too early on any one solution, it has been urged here that we not avoid the issue of vocationalism in higher education. Latent in these pages is a pedagogical theory, with extensive roots in the philosophy of education, that people learn best by doing. The motto of "work first, training later" should not be seen as applying only to the entry-level aides of a New Careers program. It is an idea deserving much closer attention at all levels of the academic enterprise.

For corrections, the result should be an expansion of new (as well as some old) training and education programs to move people into slots at all levels of correctional activity. If we can couple these changes with some needed changes in the practice and theory of corrections, perhaps we might begin to develop systems which do in fact correct, to replace our present programs that are designed, it seems, to produce social cripples.

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